1-1-1973

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THE PREPRACTICUM: REVIEW, DISCUSSION AND STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTATION IN AN OFF CAMPUS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

A Dissertation Presented

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Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August 1973

Major Subject Education

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Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere appreciation for the time and concern put forth by the members of my committee in helping me organize this dissertation. To Mason for his wit and insight; to Emma for being Emma; to Ann for her support when it was needed. And especially to my bodacious chairman, Bill, and his family for helping me learn so much about so many things. A special thanks to Teri who did all the juggling to get this finished.

My command of the English language breaks down when I try to verbalize my thanks and love for my editor-in-chief, life's partner. But to Kathleen D. I can only say Badu Ma Petite Badu.

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C H A P T E R I

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PREPRACTICUM EXPERIENCE

This dissertation is concerned in the broadest sense with teacher education. Its purpose is to provide a general view of traditional teacher education programs; to examine the various reasons behind and ways in which students are prepared for the actual practice of teaching in their field experiences, particularly in the prepracticum component of the Off Campus Teacher Education Program at the University of Massachusetts; and to present a prepracticum model for implementation and adaptation by other programs.

This examination of teacher education shall focus very briefly upon the field experience and more substantially upon the prepracticum component in teacher preparation programs. The prepracticum offers a unique opportunity for the integration of practice and theory in the preparation of a teacher. A discussion of this component shall indicate how its expansion and modification can increase the effectiveness of a teacher education program.

Charles Silberman (1970) has said, "there is probably no aspect of contemporary education on which there is greater unanimity than that teacher education needs a vast overhaul," (p. 413). With this in mind, attention will be paid to the reasons behind some existing and proposed teacher education programs, in the belief that only a change in the philosophy underlying a program can effect a change in the quality of the new teachers it prepares.

An explanation of terms encountered frequently in teacher education will be helpful to the reader. A field experience, also known as student teaching, practice teaching, practicum, or internship, is that period of time in the preparation of a teacher in which he assumes responsibility for the actual teaching of a group or groups of children in a classroom, under supervision. He works closely with a cooperating or supervising teacher, the school system's teacher who is responsible for the children in the classroom as well as for the student teacher training there. The supervisor or clinical supervisor is usually affiliated with the teacher training institution and it is his responsibility to evaluate the student teacher's performance in the field experience. Prepracticum refers to a course of study and experience in preparation for the field experience, and postpracticum refers to a course which follows it. In the Off Campus Teacher Education Program which will be described, pretern, intern, and extern were the terms used to designate students participating in the prepracticum, practicum, and postpracticum respectively.

In this introduction an overview of traditional teacher preparation programs will be presented, outlining in general terms, their organization, implementation, and philosophy. For purposes of discussion, a conceptual model of a traditional program will be used. Such a model was in use at the University of Massachusetts School of Education prior to 1968 and is still in use at many colleges and universities as evidenced by the research of Silberman (1970), Robbins (1971), and Cooper and Sadker (1972). This theoretical model will be, in some respects, a "straw man". But, like every straw man, its purpose is to emphasize for clarity the difference

between two issues under consideration; in this case, the difference between conventional and more experimental approached to teacher education.

In this theoretical model of the traditional teacher education program, a progression of courses led to the field experience and then teacher certification. What, in effect, it typically demanded of the students enrolled in such a program is that they met certification requirements set by the state and graduation requirements set by the college or university. The structure of the traditional arrangement consisted of a core of various professional courses: educational psychology and a course or courses in the philosophical, sociological, historical, or anthropological aspects of education. In addition, a section on teaching methodology was usually required. Typically, the content of such courses was dispensed in lecture form by a professor of education and through the use of education textbooks, although other means of instruction such as observations, discussions, and practical experience were occasionally used. In this type of program, the assumption is implicit that satisfactory performance as a student trains one for satisfactory performance as a teacher. At the student's successful completion of required education courses, the traditional teacher education program deemed him ready for a field experience.

For the undergraduate and in the eyes of most teacher educators, traditional or innovative, the field experience seems to be the essential culmination of teacher preparation. The field experience may last anywhere from four weeks to a year or more. In the traditional model,

the student was assigned to a classroom within commuting distance of his college or university, where he worked closely with the cooperating teacher and, typically, received infrequent supervision from the teacher training institution which placed him. In the traditional model, the student teacher was usually in his senior year in college and, upon the successful completion of the field experience, graduated from the institution as a certified teacher.

Implicit in this traditional model is a view of teacher education based upon the following beliefs: (1) A student should have a broad background of knowledge in the liberal arts and sciences before he begins his field experience. He should wait until he has completed most of his institution's graduation requirements and electives before he undertakes his student teaching. (2) A student should be well-grounded in the beliefs, values, successes and failures of other educators. He should take a course in the foundations and methodology of education; he should, in other words, be familiar with educational theory before he undertakes its practice. (3) A student should have some knowledge of children, how and why they react as they do, what their emotional needs are, what their maturational levels are, and how they learn in order to best facilitate their learning. A course in educational psychology is, therefore, deemed prerequisite to the field experience. (4) After a student has demonstrated his ability to pass these courses, the training institution will place him in a classroom and give him a chance, under supervision and guidance, to implement, perhaps experiment with, and experience all those concepts, theories, and problems he has studied

previously.

Certainly, there have been successful programs operating under this framework, with inspiring teachers and close student-teacher interactions. Unfortunately, it has become obvious over the years that the majority of programs operating with this structure fail to produce quality teachers. In effect, they perpetuate the "crisis in the classroom" which Silberman has exposed. What is even more unfortunate, perhaps, is that many schools or departments of education recognize their failures and yet, for a variety of reasons, are unable to implement major changes in their programs.

The physical, geographic, economic, and academic restrictions placed upon most teacher education programs are numerous. New equipment and enlarged facilities or new staff who could implement a variety of teacher education alternatives are limited due to financial restrictions placed upon most institutions of higher education. Often, the school systems in the area offer little educational or cultural diversity to the students practice teaching there. In these cases, the training students receive in certain areas of education such as alternative schools, differentiated staffing, integrated day, education for the handicapped, and urban teaching is limited to chapters in a textbook. Finally, many schools of education which would develop new programs which require that students take more education courses are restricted because of the number of requirements students already must meet in order to graduate.

Traditional programs of teacher education are usually based more upon expediency and external controls, such as state certification and graduation requirements, than upon any deep-rooted conviction that what does exist is the best way to prepare an educator. A philosophically, psychologically based attempt to overhaul a teacher education program at the average institution requires great creativity and perseverance to overcome the obstacles of tradition and competition with the courses offered in the wider institution, as well as financial restrictions.

In response to many of these frustrations and restricting circumstances, the Off Campus Teacher Education Program was created at the University of Massachusetts as an alternative to traditional programs. Although later expansion and refinement of the program was based on philosophical premises, its inception was, like most other teacher education programs, an expedient response to a situation.

The University of Massachusetts, in Amherst, is geographically isolated from any large population centers, located in an area of rural, fairly conservative communities. The teacher preparation program grew dramatically at the University between the years 1968 and 1969, largely for three reasons: (1) an increased undergraduate interest in teaching as a career (either for idealistic or practical concerns), (2) the growth of the University itself, and (3) a commitment by the new (administratively and philosophically) School of Education to its undergraduate students. Field placements rose from less than 200 to 450 students each semester in a period of two and a half years. Soon demand exceeded the capacity of local cooperating classrooms and a deci-

sion was made in the Office of Field Experience to establish off campus sites.

The primary benefit of the decision was the identification of distant school systems with unique and varied programs, previously unavailable to the University. This provided an opportunity for students to experience a much wider range of educational settings. The off campus placements simultaneously were able to meet the demand for field experience placement and widen the scope of the existing teacher education program. The first off campus site was in Temple City, California, but within two years the program expanded to include sites in Marin County, California; Santa Fe, New Mexico; Idaho Springs, Colorado; Miami, Florida; Montreal, Canada; Bristol and Bournemouth, England; Dusseldorf, Germany; Turino, Italy; and Amsterdam, the Netherlands. These sites offered students the opportunity to examine critically new ideas in education such as differentiated staffing, flexible scheduling, modularized curriculum, integrated day, open classroom, open campus, and special education.

Students in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program had the opportunity to grow as people, simply to survive in a setting far distant from the authority of their parents or the <u>in loco parentis</u> position of the University. For most of them, it was their first experience with independence. New freedom, even in a familiar setting, requires much examination and responsibility. In a new environment, however, with new cultural values, community patterns, and social mores, the student was forced to develop new understanding of themselves, the sites where

he was a guest, and the students he taught. He had to examine and reaffirm old values and discover new ones. Finally, he had to discover how to inquire, how to learn. He had to become more aware of himself, of society, and of the nature of and reasons for education. Obviously, not every student grew as much as might have been wished, but the opportunity for such growth was structured into the program. Such an opportunity is rare in the traditional teacher education model and yet common sense indicates that such reflection and growth is invaluable for a teacher.

Until the spring semester of 1971, the Off Campus Teacher Education Program simply offered University of Massachusetts undergraduates an alternative field experience. Students took the Foundations of Education, Curriculum Development, and Instructional Methods courses prior to the field experience just as any other undergraduate preparing for a career in elementary or secondary teaching in the traditional model.

There was only one minor difference in the preparation we offered for those students about to undertake an off campus field experience. A short series of information sessions were given in the attempt to fill some of the more obvious gaps between the students' knowledge and background and the experience they were about to begin. The staff of the program recognized that the first group of Off Campus students at any new site would have some difficulties with some of the unknowns, but felt it would be a waste of time and energy for every successive group to have to repeat that process. They recognized that the students would have to be better prepared to assimilate the wide variety of experiences they were to encounter and, to that end, briefly informed the students

of the facts about the off campus sites: the schools, the communities, housing, expenses, transportation, and a working knowledge of each site's innovative program as it applied to education in general and to the site in particular. In short, the series of meetings was an attempt to allow each student to confront the larger cultural, educational, and value issues he would meet in the off campus setting. The staff gave each student the opportunity to cope with some of the more trivial problems of the field placement before he was there, so that they might not obscure the more significant issues. As the program grew, however, it became clear that these short information sessions were insufficient to benefit a growing number of students with a growing number of problems.

In the spring of 1971, the Teacher Preparation Program Council was created at the School of Education. This council's responsibility was to oversee all teacher preparation programs at the University and to serve as their funding body. In this position, the council allowed the organization of a variety of teacher education programs, each of which was entirely responsible for the professional education of undergraduates participating in it. The advent of this council gave the Off Campus program staff, who had been working in a patchwork of expedient solutions to problems, the opportunity to conceptualize, submit, and eventually implement a total teacher education package, integrating theory and practice.

The initial goal of the Off Campus Teacher Education Program, as a program operating under the umbrella of the Teacher Preparation Program Council, was to provide undergraduates with experiences in unique edu-

cational field sites which also offered the opportunity to explore new cultural settings. As the staff observed this goal in action, it became obvious that for the student to take advantage of the experiences he met, the staff had to prepare him better for some of his immediate practical problems.

The short information sessions pointed the way and they developed a comprehensive prepracticum experience. The students met for six hours each week during the semester before their field experience. The primary goals of the prepracticum were as follows: (1) to provide the pretern with background in the fundamental foundations--the psychology, philosophy, and sociology of education--in an integrated manner and in a way which would reveal their implications for the off campus field experience and eventual career; (2) to acquaint the student with the practical realities of teaching and the skills he would need, through such means as microteaching clinics, peer group supervision, simulations, observations, practice in lesson planning and other skills necessary for a successful beginning as a student teacher; and (3) to deal with some of the lesser problems of an off campus placement, such as housing or transportation, in order that the student's attention might be free to focus upon some of the more significant issues provoked by his experience, and to present him with a set of survival skills which might prove helpful in dealing with a new culture and freedom. The integration of these issues as well as the integration of theory and practice was viewed as vital if the points under consideration were to become more than isolated data to the pretern.

To implement these goals, a team of University of Massachusetts School of Education professors and doctoral candidates was invited to prepare and offer modular course work in their areas of expertise. The course outline for this experience is included in the Appendix.

In the redesigned program, the practicum remained the center of preparation. Its goal was to provide the intern with a field position which was educationally significant, personally challenging, and psychologically rewarding. Most of the positions were in unique educational, cultural, and geographic settings. This added another dimension to the field experience in that the students had to assume a great deal of responsibility for their own day to day activities as well as for their understanding and ability to deal with the new settings in which they found themselves. The focus of educational thought varied from field site to field site. A brief description of each of the programs involved in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program is included in the Appendix.

Methodology was conducted in the field. This was by design, since the staff believed, first, that the students gained valuable lessons in instructional methodology simply by working each day with their cooperating teachers and, second, the integration of educational theory and practice gained in this way was invaluable. To facilitate this process, the staff designed and implemented a general methods course to be presented off campus. This was given on site by supervisors, staff members of the cooperating schools, and school administrators. The methods were also augmented by seminars from faculty members from various universities

neighboring particular field experience sites. The course was conducted weekly in the form of a seminar which related directly to the week's experiences and focused upon the improvement of individual teaching methods in the context of actual teaching.

Supervision is an integral component of any field experience. In the redesign of the program, the staff felt that in off campus sites a supervisor was particularly helpful as the students became acclimated to their new environments and as they began assimilating their experiences in the school and with the cooperating teacher. He provided a valuable link with the University, acting as a liaison between the "home office" and the chosen off campus school system, and was available to handle certain problems which could best be dealt with by a single person rather than a school system. In the Off Campus Teacher Education Program, the supervisor was also available to offer in-service workshops for cooperating teachers. In locations where it was not economically feasible to send a School of Education doctoral candidate to serve as an intern supervisor, the staff identified a member of the school staff to act as a supervisor for the interns. The program attempted to provide this person an adjunct professorship or instructorship at the University in recognition of his role in teacher education.

One of the first problems the program had to face was helping the interns after they had had a field experience. Typically, in the traditional model, once the internship was over students either graduated or simply went on with college, and the opportunity to reflect upon their experience was lost. Since the Off Campus preparatory program

did not consist of a series of isolated courses stretching through the college career, but rather a single prepracticum in which the foundations of education were integrated, the students did not have to wait until the end of their senior year for their field experience. They could participate in the program early in their education and continue their professional growth after the field experience.

The Off Campus staff developed a postpracticum experience to deal with this aspect of teacher preparation. This postpracticum provided a vehicle through which externs, as they were called, could begin to analyze and synthesize their experiences with teaching. Opportunity was provided for externs to share their insights and reflect upon their growth. One of the main purposes of this postpracticum was to offer a chance for the externs to determine further their strengths and weaknesses as teachers, clarify issues raised in the field, and assimilate the results of their experiences.

The second aspect of the postpracticum course was to have the externs work with the preterns, those students in the prepracticum who were about to begin their field experience. They acted as instructional aides to the preterns, continuing to practice their teaching skills, and providing a good background in information on each field site. They were invaluable in alleviating some of the pretern fears as to housing, transportation, and expenses, as well as in preparing them for the reality of hard work.

Finally, in the redesign of the original program into the Off Campus Teacher Education Program, we set a priority for trying to estab-

lish a pre-service-in-service continuum for teacher education. The staff felt that teacher educators can no longer continue to view the internship and the cooperating teacher's role in that internship as qualitatively different experiences. They are both involved in the dual process of learning and teaching. Accordingly, program staff attempted to unify these experiences to provide for tradeoffs in the Off Campus program between faculty at the University of Massachusetts and members of the staffs in the school systems chosen as off campus sites, each sharing instructional responsibilities at both institutions. One bonus of this proposed pre-service-in-service continuum is that it would bypass some of the economical restrictions imposed upon teacher preparation programs at the University as well as aid practicing teachers in their further professional growth.

CHAPTER II

SOME PHILOSOPHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF VARIOUS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM STRUCTURES

This chapter is concerned with the philosophical implications of the various structures of teacher education programs. A change in the philosophy of a teacher education program can effect a change in the quality of the teachers it prepares. Although individual teacher educators may make a difference in one direction or the other, the philosophy of a program seems to be of vast significance: first, the ways in which teacher education programs view the goals and processes of education or learning determine in large measure the methods they will use in preparing teachers (Joyce, 1972) and, second, the methods used by the teacher education staff are bound to determine to some extent the potential of the teachers they prepare.

Kohlberg and Mayer (1972) have proposed that all philosophies of education can be subsumed under three categories: the romantic, the cultural-transmission, and the cognitive developmental. Essentially, those philosophies of education lying within the realm of the romantic category assume that the individual is the locus of learning and that his subjective experience provides the focus, the thrust, the beginning and the end of education. It is an attitude of total faith in the learner: trust that what he wants to learn is important, trust that he can learn by himself what is important for him to learn, and trust that left alone he will grow. Non-interference with his learning by his

environment, whether that be the particular structuring of a school or the pedagogical desires of a teacher, is a basic tenet.

The cultural transmission model and those philosophies which may be categorized under it, on the other hand, place less emphasis upon the individual and much more upon the external, objective reality with which he must interact. In this context, what is to be learned becomes of more significance than the learner learning it. It is the basis for the traditional pattern of American schooling in which information, the learner's culture, is transmitted or dispensed to him by one who presumably knows more about it than he. The emphasis, as can be seen, is more upon learning about the world than learning from it. It is largely a passive mode of learning and one which would view the goal of education as the acquisition by the learner of a certain body of knowledge and a certain repertoire of behaviors with which the learner can deal with his culture.

The cognitive developmental approach, in its contemporary form, arises out of the research and observations of such scientists as Piaget, Bruner, and Montessori, among others. It places the locus of learning in the interaction between an individual and his environment: physical, psychological, and cultural. It emphasizes the importance of individual experience in learning as well as the importance of the structuring or planning or guiding of those experiences by the facilitator of that learning. Dewey (Geiger, 1958), for example, states that rather than not interfering in the learner's experience and growth, a tenet mistakenly applied to his progressive school, it is the moral responsibility of the teacher to structure experiences for the learner which will nur-

ture his continued growth; i.e., which will not limit the learner in his freedom or cause him to regress or fixate at a particular level of development.

Obviously, the first two categories of educational philosophies have aspects which offer valuable insights and approaches for education: the romantic philosophies offer the trust of and respect for the learner and his subjectivity, while the cultural transmission philosophy stresses the obvious need for information about the environment and adequate conceptual models to process that information. The weakness, however, of both the romantic and the cultural transmission models of education is their failure to recognize the strength of the other. As Kohlberg and Mayer (1972) point out, the cognitive developmental approach appears to be superior to the other two, not because it chooses a middle of the road path between the individual and the environment with which he interacts, but because it recognizes that it is precisely in the interaction that learning takes place.

A discussion of the romantic category of philosophies of education seems to have little place in this paper since it is not presently operative in teacher education programs. The cultural transmission category of philosophies of education seems to aptly describe the framework under which many teacher education programs are operating, and therefore deserves closer examination. This philosophy, as it specifically applies to teacher education, begins with the assumption that there are certain things a person must know if he is to be a teacher. As indicated in the introduction to this paper, such "necessary knowledge" in

conventional programs includes an understanding of child development, learning theory, the relation of the school to the society, and a variety of teaching skills. As stated here, Joyce (1972) would concur with this belief in "necessary knowledge" since he stresses the need for substantial professional backgrounds so that teachers will have more raw materials for creative teaching as well as a repertoire of varied approaches to meet varied needs as they arise in the classroom. Piaget (Phillips, 1969) and Dewey (Geiger, 1958) would also believe in the importance of a solid theoretical background for the teacher, primarily so that he can assess the developmental level of each child, arrange learning experiences which will capitalize upon the child's particular cognitive processes at that point in time, and facilitate his growth to higher levels of development.

The difficulty with the cultural transmission philosophy of education as it operates within the teacher education context is that it takes more account of what is to be learned than of the way in which the learner learns. It, unfortunately, usually evolved into the mere transmission of knowledge, and the idea that knowledge can be transmitted to a passive "learner" is simply not supported by research. (See, for example, Phillips, 1969, who list many of Piaget's lucid examples of this fact; and Biber, Shapiro, and Wickens, 1971.)

A teacher education program operating under this framework, then, first of all, risks failing to teach its students what it wants them to learn. Secondly, it usually makes little provision for the transference of this cognitive learning, if it does take place, to the beha-

vioral sphere, which is where the effects of the future teacher's preparation will be felt. This problem of making what is learned meaningful enough for the learner to make a change in his relationship to the world will be discussed later in the paper. Suffice it to say here that meaningful knowledge can not really be "transmitted" and that the attempt at the transmission of knowledge by teacher educators makes "the ridiculous assumption that prospective teachers would not teach as they were taught, that they would ignore what was done about teaching, but would heed what was said about it..." (Robbins, 1971).

The cognitive developmental philosophy of education as it would apply to teacher education programs, on the other hand, takes into account not only what should be learned but the learner and his learning process. It provides in theory for the interaction between the environment which includes factual or theoretical material, and the individual. In practice, it can do this through the integration of theory and experience and through the structuring of experiences which provide for the interaction of the learner and his environment within his growing conceptual framework.

A philosophy or view of learning or growth, sparked in great measure by Radical Man, (Hampden-Turner, 1970), which fits into the cognitive developmental category of educational philosophy since it recognizes the interaction of the individual and the environment as the locus of learning, can be stated conceptually as an unending, ever-widening, cyclical process which involves five steps or phases. These phases are: (1) experience--interaction with the environment; (2) reflection

upon experience; (3) organization of experiences, reflections, insights and information gathered from the environment into conceptual frameworks; (4) skills to provide for more meaningful experiences and conceptual frameworks; and (5) a return to any and all of the preceeding phases with further growth and deepening of the entire cyclical process.

Evolving from this framework, six assumptions can be made about teacher education. They shall be listed here, since they will serve as the basis for discussion and evaluation in the examination of pre-practicums in teacher education which will follow.

Assumption I

The learning that takes place in a teacher education program is identical to the learning process in any other life situation. In order for learning to occur, several conditions must be met.

The learner must want to learn; he must feel a need to effect a change toward growth in his relationships to the world of concepts, behavior, feelings, things, others. "Learning occurs most efficiently when the student perceives a need to learn" (Combs, 1968, p. 224).

He must assume responsibility for his own learning. The initiative for change or growth may come from without, as in a predesigned structure for teacher education, but the learner must desire the change or growth in a personal way. It is the responsibility of the teacher to help him perceive his needs (Combs, 1968), but in the last analysis, the learner must make a personal commitment to meeting them.

The partnership aspect of the learner and the facilitator(s) of his learning must be always present. According to Combs (1968), "teacher education programs must be even more student-centered than the programs we are currently advocating for students in the public schools" (p.213). When the learner chooses to enter a teacher education program and decides to work with resource personnel in his profession, he must feel that the training, supervision, counselling, or help to which he has committed himself in a partnership arrangement takes place in a trusting, supportive, and positive emotional climate. He must be met with concern, as an individual committed to growth, and with respect for his personal approach to learning (Combs, 1969)

Assumption II

The second assumption about learning in general and the growth process in a teacher education program, specifically, is: for any learning to take place in a facilitator-learner relationship an open, warm, interpersonal relationship must exist. Rogers (1968) supports this assumption, applying principles from his client centered psychotherapy to education.

It is obvious that we educate to develop each being's human potential and that nothing significant is truly learned if it is not meaningful to the learner. According to Combs, Avila, and Purkey (1971), "problems of humanization and personal discovery of meaning...must be solved...by human commitment and involvement, interaction of person with persons. The discovery of meaning is a human problem and requires

a person who is willing to stimulate and encourage growth in the self of another person" (p. 175). A teacher education program must provide this kind of a relationship to its students so that, as they enter their own classrooms, they may provide that kind of support to their own students.

A teacher education program must prepare teachers who are not only qualified in the factual realm of education, but who have an understanding of their own feelings, attitudes, values, and modes of relating, as well as tools to continue their processes of personal growth. In addition, the student in a teacher education program must have some insight into himself as a person if he is to deal, as he must, with the affective domains of the children for whom he assumes responsibility. He needs insight as well as the tools to help others to gain insight. Combs, et.al., (1971), speak of the "self as instrument" and state that the role of the teacher educator is not to teach a student how to be a teacher but rather to facilitate his growth in becoming a teacher.

The whole person must be dealt with in a teacher education program in an integral way. The whole person of the teacher in any classroom "instructs" students in a myriad of extra-curricular beliefs and attitudes, through non-verbal, often unconscious, behaviors indicating value judgments and prejudices; through the selective rewarding of student behavior such as conformity and obedience; and through other such things as tone of voice and style of dress. It is not enough to be aware of this "hidden agenda", he must go beyond that awareness to see himself as a tool and improve his effectiveness in helping others grow.

Education can no longer concern itself solely with the cognitive aspect of man. The twentieth century has seen the glory of man's cognitive powers, often de-emphasizing his expressive, moral, spiritual and emotional dimensions. Any learning experience, whether it be in a School of Education or a Head Start Program, must concern itself with facilitating the growth of the whole person. Zigler (1970) has affirmed this goal of providing for human development in each of its dimensions.

Assumption III

> Listen, and you forget
> See, and you remember
> Do, and you understand.
> --Chinese Proverb
>
> If we tried to teach children language, they'd never talk.
> --John Holt

A third assumption is that learning takes place in the true sense only by an individual, creative act of synthesis. It involves the whole person--feelings, cognitions, world views, facts, values--and thus occurs most naturally and endures most meaningfully when what is to be synthesized has been experienced by the whole person. This assumption was one of the basic beliefs in Dewey's view of learning (Geiger, 1958). Research has indicated that such experiential learning, with reflection, has a fundamental integrative function for the individual (Biber, 1972).

An understanding of this characteristic of learning is particularly crucial in a teacher education program. Those who would enter the teach-

ing profession and take responsibility for facilitating the learning of others must know personally, experientially, about the learning process.

To achieve this kind of real knowledge requires a cyclical flow in and out of experience and reflection. Unfortunately, many programs which provide experience afford little opportunity for reflection or help with conceptualization. Thus, the experiences, while remaining potentially valid, lose much of their meaning and many insights which might have been made are missed. Ort (1968) insists that students be provided with the opportunities to reflect upon, analyze, and synthesize their experiences.

In addition, a teacher education program must provide a structure which allows the prospective teacher to experience a wide variety of approaches to learning, in order to discover his personal mode of learning as well as to offer experiential alternatives to the children with whom he will come in contact. A further point to bear in mind in this context is that learning occurs best "not through sporadic, passsing, 'doing' activity, but as the consequence of engaging in a sequence of experiences that involve questions, knowledge seeking, new accomplishments, and further questioning" (Biber, 1972, p.65).

Assumption IV

Society can no longer afford to have inadequate teachers in its classrooms. In a time of almost incomprehensible societal and technological change, in a time of the possible destruction of man and the natural environment of which he is part, in a time of increasingly

schizophrenic institutions and divided, inadequate selves, the education of children is assuming the single most important role in any hope of salvation for us and our planet. The teacher, increasingly, whether wisely or unwisely, is becoming responsible for this salvation.

Accordingly, and in view of the abundance of teachers on the market, any student in a teacher education program not deeply committed to the wide ramifications of his classroom behavior or incapable of assuming that responsibility should not be certified at the end of the program, which is an arbitrary point in time.

Teacher education programs must discard the materialistic attitudes which had them grind out large numbers of teachers and should become concerned with quality of life issues, training effective educators who are capable of dealing with real problems of utmost importance in creative ways.

Assumption V

Teachers must be trained for a country whose inhabitants possess wide individual, sectional, and demographic differences but who ultimately share the same major concerns. Technology, increasingly, is changing the nature of space. America, in many respects, is becoming smaller. State teacher education programs are anachronisms. Teacher education programs should have these two things constantly in mind: the similarity of concerns of the country's people and the diversity of life styles teachers will encounter as their increased mobility

sends them all around the country. It is provincial to prepare a teacher for the nation in the classrooms of a homogeneous, perhaps non-representative section of one state. (See Horn, 1969).

In addition, individuals who receive teacher training in only one type of traditional classroom are almost programmed to preserve that status quo. At this time, in view of the present operation of most American schools, unless future teachers receive a wide variety of innovative experiences in education, they are almost obsolete before they are certified.

Assumption VI

A weak link in most teacher education programs appears to be the lack of a unifying philosophy or set of goals (See Mulhern, 1967). Most programs provide a series of disjointed, fragmented experiences which lead only to a piece of paper certifying one to teach. To be meaningful, all parties in a teacher education program should agree philosophically on the nature of learning as a personal, cyclical process of experience, reflection, and synthesis; and on the nature of teaching as the facilitation of another's growth. All parties must remain consciously aware of the educational assumptions or goals held and structure or relate every experience in the program to them. The philosophy of the total program must be recurrent in each of its components. The end result must not be viewed as a teaching certificate, but rather the beginning of an ongoing process of personal and professional growth. Ort (1968) supports this view, insisting on the necessity of a

teacher education program pursuing its goals within a systematic, organized, logically developed frame of reference. Each aspect of the program must have a discernable rationale in view of the total philosophy.

C H A P T E R III

A REVIEW OF THE PREPRACTICUM

As indicated in the introduction to this paper, the failure of most traditional teacher education programs to prepare the majority of its students as quality teachers has been generally acknowledged. Many programs are instituting comprehensive prepracticum components in an attempt to integrate professional theory with practice in the student teacher's classroom experience. The aim of the comprehensive prepracticum is to introduce the student gradually to the teaching role and to provide him with greater opportunity for first-hand practice at teaching, as well as with an opportunity to reflect upon and synthesize his experiences within a conceptual framework.

The prepracticum serves as a cogent focus for study since its format often indicates the thrusts and concerns of the larger teacher education program of which it may be part. It can reveal inadequacies as well as serve as an entry point for significant change. For purposes of this discussion, prepracticum here refers to the sequence of studies and experiences provided for a student teacher prior to his field experience.

The variety of prepracticums now operating in teacher education programs can be viewed on a continuum with a series of professional education courses with little or no direct contact with learners at one pole, to a comprehensive, gradual introduction to the teaching role through the integration of educational theory and practice at the

other. The extremes of this continuum quite obviously prepare students differently for the field experience and actual practice of teaching.

The increasing emphasis in prepracticum programs is upon experience. Poque (1968) has insisted upon the value of many direct experiences with children and young people prior to the field experience. He believes that student teaching should be only one aspect of the sequences in the preparation of a teacher. He emphasizes "professional lab experiences," an inclusive term used to designate all the direct experiences with children, youth, and adults that should be provided for students preparing to teach.

Merrill (1967) is another who views direct classroom contact as vital in the prepracticum for the field experience following. He states:

> The student teaching program really begins long before the college student is assigned to a center of a classroom. Prior to this, he must experience a direct and continuing relationship with children and young people. This is vitally important for several reasons. Much pupil behavior must be seen before it has meaning, and pupil actions, attitudes, and reactions need to be thought about over a period of time. In addition, principles of teaching have more meaning when they can be related to one's own experience. Thus, a prospective teacher must have direct encounters with pupils, teachers, and school officials, accompanied by some planned analysis and evaluation of these contacts prior to the actual student teaching experience (p. 58).

The important aspects of Merrill's ideas about prepracticum are early exposure to students and teachers in real situations, accompanied by planned analysis and evaluation. Unless the student is provided with the tools for analysis and evaluation, he often does not know how to make use of the resources and learning opportunities

available to him. One runs the risk of having him observe without seeing, or participate without knowing why.

Another major reason for providing a prepracticum which integrates educational theory and practice is to deal with the fear which research has shown to be so prevalent among student teachers. Fear does inhibit learning and experience in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program has shown that much of this fear can be eliminated with adequate experiences and information clearing the way for learning to take place. This will be discussed later.

Most prepracticums which attempt to integrate theory and practice are centered around three activities, according to Devon (1964): observation, participation, and actual teaching. Observation includes all activities in which the student teacher is merely an onlooker, but this observation, for maximum benefit, should be directed so that the student can isolate the significant factors in the classroom and study their interaction and influence. Participation is any activity in which the student is doing more than merely observing, but in which he is not actually directing children's learning. This may include curriculum development, listening to children read, or other classroom management responsibilities. Actual teaching is the act of facilitating the learning of a child or children. In prepracticum experiences, this may take the form of tutoring or microteaching or presenting "episodes" to an ongoing classroom. With these three major components of a comprehensive prepracticum, should also be included discussions of educational issues and theories, the "necessary knowledge;" an

introduction to the basic "survival skills" of teaching; and familiarization with the site for the field experience.

There are various models for prepracticum work in teacher education. Many programs at various colleges and universities utilize their laboratory schools as settings for prepracticum experiences. As Griffiths (1949) reported, preservice experiences with children in model schools helped student teachers understand the students as individuals, gave them a clearer idea of children's abilities, helped them understand how to direct children, gave them an understanding of cooperation with the teacher and helped them become familiar with the school room and its equipment. Tanruther (1950) supports the use of the lab school as a site for prepracticum experiences, calling it an ideal site "because it is admirably situated to bring in close a correlation between the theory of professional courses and the practice in school situations" (p. 218).

Tanruther goes on to comment that the prepracticum experience in the lab school provides a multitude of learning experiences for the pretern. It presents opportunities for carefully planned small group seminars and observation groups which are well integrated with the college course. It offers individualized observations, studies of individual children, studies of curriculum at the level the student teacher is planning to reach as well as an overview of curriculum at all levels, participation in the ongoing work of the school, study of the administration and facilities of a school, and laboratory experiences related to the community. The importance of these experiences

cannot be denied, whether they occur in a lab school or in an ongoing cooperating school classroom.

Other educators feel that prepracticum activities should be conducted in the school where the student will be doing his field experience. As Merrill (1967) says:

> In order to plan and prepare systematically for student teaching, the student teacher should be involved in an intensive preparation seminar. If he is to function most effectively in the student teaching experience, he must have some specific information about his assignment and what he will be held responsible for teaching.... He also needs an opportunity to familiarize himself with school board policies and the routines of the school in which he will be teaching.... As he becomes more familiar with the setting in which he will student teach and begins to develop specific plans, questions which are important to him will arise and probably some anxieties. The seminar situation where information can be obtained and final plans discussed enables the prospective teacher to become ready, confident, and well organized before his introduction into the actual school setting. Not only can he move into teaching sooner, but the possibility of unfortunate occurrences at the outset of the student teaching experience is often eliminated (pp. 58-59).

The distinction between a general prepracticum and a specific one, in other words, between one based on work in a laboratory school not the site of the field experience and one conducted in the setting where the student will be student teaching, is generally drawn along the lines of convenience. While most prepracticums should be relevant to the actual field experience, it is economically impossible for the off campus preterns to make frequent visits to the off campus site for prepracticum work. In these circumstances, specific information from and about no field site can prepare a student for his student teaching as adequately as actually visiting the site. The practice of teaching skills seems

to be a general art which can mature when working with any group of learners. It seems likely that a good general preparation for student teaching, with a specific component that deals exclusively with the unique situation to be encountered in the field experience, has the most merit as the format of a prepracticum.

There are several basic goals which any prepracticum should try to reach. According to Andrews (1968), the prepracticum period should provide data both for personal and institutional decision about entrance into professional teacher education, planned approaches to satisfying individual needs and strengthening student weakness, experience in all the roles of the teacher, and an analysis of the student's personal-professional behavior and potential. Tanruther (1967) feels that any prepracticum for the field experience should also provide the student with experience in self-examination of his strengths and weaknesses and with training in objective techniques for this self-examination process. To these goals could be added the alleviation of student anxieties, the presentation of specific information on the student's field site, the integration of educational theory and practice in the initial development of teaching skills, and the building of self-confidence in working with children and young people.

That type of teacher education program which prepares its students for the field experience through a series of professional education courses and little classroom contact obviously places great importance on the "necessary knowledge" one must have if one is to teach. The

implicit philosophy of learning operant in this viewpoint is that one can simply impart to another what is to be learned--the cultural transmission idea discussed earlier.

In practice, this approach places the student teacher in an "apprentice" relationship (see Houston, et.al., 1965) with his cooperating teacher. Student teaching is viewed as an opportunity for learning how a teacher acts and gaining confidence in assuming that role. The field experience appears as a means of developing a general approach of posture for teaching with the cooperating teacher as the model.

The problems with this approach to the preparation of student teachers for their field experience are serious. Although the student has been introduced to the knowledge which would enable him to understand and evaluate the interactions taking place in his field experience classroom, there is doubt, indicated previously, as to whether he can learn the material well enough in a cultural transmission approach to actually apply it. Without this ability to apply the knowledge, there is always the possibility that the student teacher may imitate isolated skills or gimmicks, used by the cooperating teacher, which may or may not be part of facilitating the learning process of a group of learners. Because in his preparation for the field experience he had no integration of theory and practice, the "apprentice" student teacher often sees the cooperating teacher in action which is unrelated to supporting theory. Thus, he has no sound basis for discriminating between the positive and negative aspects of teaching behavior which the cooperating teacher exhibits.

In addition, this "apprentice" view of the student teacher, implicit in a purely theoretical preparation for a field experience, does not inherently provide for the preparation of a free-thinking, independent teacher, one capable of maintaining flexibility, spontaneity, or creativity. When a student takes a series of prescribed courses and then appears at the proper time in the classroom assigned him, his role in determining the direction of his field experience and professional growth is, too often, largely a passive one, as evidence from Houston (1965) would suggest.

He enters the field with a cornucopia of factual data and hopes to make the transition from discussion of theory to the ability to recognize, isolate, and deal with educational problems as they manifest themselves in the field. As Pearl (1968) has indicated, the danger is great that the theory previously "transmitted" is too often forgotten or not applied since its original presentation was too remote from experience and practice. In such a prepracticum, the relationship between educational theory and practice is more often than not only verbally related by the instructor, rather than experienced by the student, as it should be for real knowledge to take place. The field experience becomes an isolated phenomenon.

The overriding tendency for the student teacher in the apprentice framework is to model the cooperating teacher. With no practical experience to draw from, no examples with which to compare experiences, the student teacher undergoes a phenomenon similar to imprinting in psychology. Unless the cooperating teacher is particularly perceptive or unless there is a team of cooperating teachers working with each student

teacher, as research by Schacht (1968) would suggest, he will probably reinforce the modelling behavior, no matter how unconscious he may be of this reinforcement. This can only serve to help retard the decision making capabilities of the student teacher. Instead of using the field experience to learn how to react to situations, interpret motivations, and respond to individual learners, the student teacher often may learn only how to respond as his cooperating teacher does. Perhaps the danger of such imprinting can be lessened by a prepracticum experience which introduces the student gradually to the realities of teaching through a variety of direct experiences.

Several suggestions related to improving the quality of the field experience by improving the quality of the training provided for the student before he enters the field experience can be made of this point. As studies by Combs (1969) have indicated, flexibility, spontaneity, and creativity are vital for a teacher. Blind imitation blocks the development of these traits in the apprentice student teacher, since they arise from opposing forces in the personality: blind imitation arising from fear and the lack of knwoledge which is meaningful enough to relate to experience, creativity from confidence in one's self and a wide repertoire of available alternatives and reasons for them. A comprehensive prepracticum can be a step in preparing the student teacher for the latter.

In reviewing some of the literature on the traditional field experience the picture emerged of the student teacher as being full of mixed emotions, with some element of fear as the main feeling.

(See, especially, Garrad, 1966). As Steeves (1959) put it:

> Perhaps the biggest handicap facing many beginning teachers is fear. Somehow the prospective student teachers just can't believe they are ready to stand up before twenty or thirty restless boys and girls, get them quiet, organize and direct classroom activities, and at the same time keep track of all the details of routing, management and presentation that come up during the period.... Other fears come from questioning their readiness for a field experience, their background in education, and in subject matter, previous experience with children, personal characteristics, and the uncertainties of working with brash, energetic young people.... (p. 1).

Psychologists have long acknowledged that learning is inhibited by fear. (See, for example, Janis and Feshbach, 1953). Experience and common sense indicate that skill development is minimal when the student teacher is apprehensive. A prepracticum which integrates practice and theory can deal with these negative feelings to a large degree before the field experience and prepare the student teacher to take greater advantage of the learning opportunities which will be available to him in the field. One of the best ways this can be done, as later examples will show, is by providing a variety of opportunities for the student teacher to participate in an ongoing classroom in a variety of roles: observer, teacher aide, teaching assistant, and curriculum developer, for example.

In addition, it is imperative to reduce the passivity of the student teacher in his preparation for an active role as a teacher. His involvement in the field experience, and indeed in the entire teacher education program, might deepen were the student teacher allowed to make some independent decisions and plan to some extent the course and direction of his development. He could, for example, be equipped

with tools for self-evaluation and meet his needs through the modular use of resources, both material and personnel; he could choose the type of educational setting which he felt afforded him the greatest opportunity for learning; he could, with guidance and support, create his own personal teacher education program based on his needs, interest, philosophy, and goals. Most certainly, he could be given the techniques, the opportunity, and the encouragement to develop his own personal mode of teaching behavior.

An effective facilitator of learning must be able to establish supportive interpersonal relationships, must have problem solving abilities, and creativity. A program of ready made courses in the basic foundations of education offered in isolation from the classroom seems too generalized and too pedagogical to really provide a student with the insight and techniques he will need when he faces the specific problems of classroom realities.

Many programs offer a variety of much more comprehensive prepracticums which allow the student to learn more from his field experience by preparing him for it more effectively beforehand. Even if the prepracticum consisted of theoretical courses and only a few hours of directed observation in an ongoing classroom, at least that experience could give the student the opportunity to practice studying and evaluating the interactions in a classroom.

Houston (1965) refers to the "professional" approach to teacher education as one in which the student is prepared for "the wide range of phenomena dealt with, and the vast amount of descriptive or

theoretical data necessary for the teacher to have at his command in order to have a reasonable chance of successful dealing with these phenomena." (p. 9). He insists upon the necessity of structuring a prepracticum from which students would enter the field with the techniques to understand the interactions in a classroom and evaluate various teaching behaviors as well as with previous practice in the development of teaching skills. As Burkhart and Neil (1968) demand, the locus of evaluation must be in the learner.

Houston insists that the aim in teacher education should be toward giving the student teacher the opportunity to reflect upon psychological, sociological, and philosophical principles and their relevance to the planning of classroom activities, and to study the outcomes and evaluate the application of these principles. Now, this seems strikingly similar to the aims of programs operating under a cultrual transmission approach. The difference, however, lies in the different ways in which programs attempt to meet these aims.

As Mink (1968) states, the teacher's role must be seen as essentially a problem solving one. In terms of this problem solving role, Combs, et.al., (1971) have suggested that the task of teacher educators is not to train students in the "right" theory or the "right" methods, but rather to expose them to a wide background of knowledge and techniques and provide them with ample opportunity to practice using this knowledge and these techniques in the learning situation, which is essentially a problematic one.

If the student teacher has a prepracticum which provides a variety

of direct experiences prior to the field experience, in which he constantly relates theory to practice, he has a much better chance of developing a conscious awareness of his actions which will aid him in his teaching long after the field experience is over. In this integration of theory and practice in a variety of experiences in an ongoing classroom during the prepracticum, the student teacher also has a greater opportunity to develop confidence, to begin to find his own best mode of relating to learners, to develop techniques to evaluate himself as well as his cooperating teacher, and to begin to understand the teacher-learner situation. It is by placing an equal emphasis upon the prepracticum as upon the practicum, indeed upon the postpracticum as well, although that is not the concern of this paper, that a teacher education program can better prepare its students.

At this point, an examination of several teacher education programs which have initiated comprehensive prepracticum components will be offered to offer concrete examples of the suggestions which have been discussed.

Butterweck (1950) reported on an early attempt at a prepracticum conducted at Temple University, a laboratory approach to teacher education. The specific intent of the program was to bridge the gap between the student teacher's classroom performance and his knowledge of theory. To meet this goal, Temple developed a program of laboratory courses which included five different forms of experiences: observation, participation, creation, self-evaluation, and group dynamics. These experiences were developed in a series of sequential courses, the first, for example, being a Problems Course for Freshmen which included visits

to slum areas, community centers, mental and penal institutions, juvenile courts and religious meetings. Films were presented to extend and help clarify the visits into the community. Objective tests were taken as a form of self-evaluation. The program included such other phases as visits to area schools for observation and participation, working with small groups of children in social agencies, examining the administrative functioning of area schools and work in curriculum and educational psychology.

The components of this model appear to have been designed to prepare students, in a professional manner, for their practicum experiences. Each student was provided the opportunity to expand his experience through direct contacts with children and young people in a variety of settings, to develop insight into the relationship of the classroom to the larger school and the school to the community, to reduce his fear of the teacher role through gradual introduction to interaction with learners, and to acquire techniques for the continuing evaluation of his own growth in the field experience and in his career. The opportunity to practice teaching skills was provided through tutoring experiences and work with small groups of children and, from the onset of his professional preparation, educational theory was integrated with direct experience.

The Correlated Teacher Education Program at the University of Minnesota, as described by Amershek and Barbour (1968), also has a rather comprehensive prepracticum component for its teacher education experience. Students, in their junior year, are involved with tutoring public schools and study of the physical, social and emotional growth of

children through selected readings, discussions, and observations. They participate in microteaching clinics and study human learning as well as measurement and statistics in relation to independent education research problems. Their activities include, as well, small group instruction in the public schools and the study of methods of instruction and evaluation of learning within a particular subject area. Teaching methods are thus grounded in the student teacher's reality and the opportunity is provided the student teacher for immediate feedback as he practices teaching methods. As seniors, they begin full day student teaching to tie all of their previous learning and experience together and to provide a laboratory for greater professional growth.

The emphasis in this program is on the study of design and implementation of instructional strategies, which is certainly indicative of the professional orientation of their teacher education program. The student is provided with many opportunities to enter the classroom for his field experience with an understanding of the interactions and influences in the learning environment and the insight and techniques to use himself as a tool to increase the effectiveness as teachers, and a "correlated" introduction to educational theory and practice prepare him for a field experience of growth, rather than of mere survival.

The education of teachers at Michigan State University at Grand Rapids, as described by Blackmore (1968), is another example of a program which has a comprehensive prepracticum component. The prepracticum experience begins in the first semester of the student's junior year, in the community in which he will intern. The

prepracticum is under the guidance of the intern coordinator in each field site. Methods seminars are integrated with directed observations, microteaching clinics, demonstrations, and the use of feedback instruments. Observations and behaviors observed serve to give a functional frame of reference to relate the educational theory under discussion in the seminars. Students see the overall curriculum in an elementary school as well as the teacher-student interactions in a variety of classrooms. Demonstrations serve to focus attention on a particular aspect of teaching behavior as well as develop evaluative skills in the students. The educational philosophy and operation of the school in which the students will intern becomes a reality not through discussion of it, but through direct observation of and interaction with it. Students, during their prepracticum semester, participate in the ongoing work of the school in such activities as long and short range planning, classroom management, teacher evaluation, and learning disability diagnostics. In this way, the psychology of learning under discussion in the seminar is grounded in reality and contributes to the prospective student teacher's more effective functioning in the prepracticum experiences. During the actual internship the following semester, students participate in a course examining the relationship of the school to the community.

This is an example of a comprehensive prepracticum program which involves the student in direct experience from the beginning of his teacher preparation and which attempts at all times to reveal the relationship between educational theory and practice. It appears to

provide for the alleviation of student anxieties by introducing him gradually to the specific site in which he will be student teaching. The emphasis on evaluative techniques appears to insure the likelihood that his growth will continue with his career.

The Brockport-Rochester Urban Teacher Education program is a cooperative effort of the State University of New York at Brockport and the public school systems of Rochester, New York, and will be the final example of a program offering comprehensive prepracticum experiences to its students. Each student makes a full year commitment to the program, either for his junior or senior year in college, and receives thirty credits and a provisional certification as a K-6 teacher. His year of professional education is centered in a public school with a permanent staff member from the college and a curriculum center provided by the college. The first four months are spent in course work and classroom participation, the next six weeks in full time teaching and community exploration. College courses are presented at the particular school where the student teacher is centered and are well integrated with his activities within that school.

The program is specifically based upon meeting Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Garland and Foster, 1972): The program staff recognizes that one must deal with the student teacher's anxieties about teaching before one can help him develop teaching competency. Their aim is to have the student operate at a level where his energy goes more toward growing than toward simply surviving. The student moves at his own rate from observation to teaching with limited responsibilities, plans

his teaching tasks as his confidence develops with the assistance of a cooperating teacher and the affiliated professor of education, and has the opportunity for supervision and conferences immediately available to him. The part-time induction into teaching, according to members of the staff, increases the student teacher's probability of experiencing success since he only faces a limited number of problems at a particular time.

Role playing, peer group evaluation, video taping, weekly seminars for feedback, and theoretical courses integrated with direct observations or experiences comprise the prepracticum. The year commitment to the program gives the student teacher the opportunity to observe and participate at all levels of the elementary school, to see different developmental levels, as well as to witness the sequential growth in particular children.

As stated specifically in the program's goals, the college professor develops a supportive relationship with each of the ten to twelve student teachers at the particular school with which he is affiliated. Of course, it is possible for people in any teacher education program to provide this support to students, but making this type of relationship a conscious aim would seem to increase the likelihood of its occurence.

In general, a comprehensive prepracticum may be a vast improvement over the traditional model of teacher education in the preparation of quality teachers. Its strong points can include the adequate alleviation of student fears about the field experience, thus clearing

the way for greater learning to take place during that internship; the integration of the general and specific knowledge necessary for the field experience; the provision of experiences for the development of confidence and evaluative skills in teaching; and the integration of educational theory and practice in experience.

C H A P T E R IV

THE OFF CAMPUS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM PREPRACTICUM

In this chapter, an examination of the prepracticum component in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program at the University of Massachusetts, as it was originally implemented and further developed, will be presented. It offers another alternative for the development of a comprehensive prepracticum experience.

The program emphasis upon field sites in settings of educational innovations arose from a wish to provide our students with experiences with people working in those settings, and to learn from observing and interacting with them. The program adhered to the professional philosophy of teacher preparation, as described by Houston (1965), on page 38 of this text, since that type of program seemed best able to train the creative, reflective, humanistic teachers so sorely needed in this country's classrooms. Consequently, the Off Campus Program prepared preterns in the prepracticum to enter their field experience with some confidence, experience, and insights into the teaching role as well as with some tools for the further understanding and exploration of that role in their field experience.

The prepracticum experiences were designed to face the challenges presented in three interrelated areas: Foundations of Education, Skills, and Site Introduction. Foundations of Education was concerned with the psychological, sociological, and philosophical foundations of education. In this area, it was imperative that the staff provide experiences for

students which would meet, and indeed go beyond, the state certification requirements for educational foundations. Staff Members wanted to present these in such a way that they would be meaningful enough for the student to retain, integrated enough practice for the student to use, and exciting enough for him to seek to go beyond the ideas and information presented to him.

The Skills component concerned itself not only with an introduction to and practice of teaching skills but also with those "survival skills" such as classroom management and innovative methods, a teacher needs to allow his classroom to become an environment for learning.

Site Introduction, the last of the three major concerns in the Off Campus prepracticum, included the presentation of information to the students about such things as travel arrangements, budgetary considerations, housing, culture shock, and school and community profiles at their particular field sites.

The theory, practice, and alleviation of student anxiety which were referred to as Foundations, Skills, and Site Information are three things every student teacher needs before beginning his field experience. The Off Campus Teacher Education Program attempted to place equal emphasis upon all three aspects, to emphasize and allow each student to experience their interrelationships, and to retain flexibility in the structure of the prepracticum experiences. This flexibility allowed the modification of the prepracticum program to meet the needs of existing field placements as well as to meet the needs of students preparing for these field assignments.

Certification Requirements

At the time of the program's implementation, in order to be certified as an elementary school teacher (K-8) in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, as stated in the Application for Certification, the following must have been successfully completed:

> Eighteen semester hours approved for Elementary Education, not less than two semester hours must be in supervised student teaching in the elementary grades. The remaining semester hours must include courses covering two or more of the following: Educational Psychology including Child Growth and Development; Philosophy of Education; Methods and Materials in Elementary Education; Curriculum Development in Elementary Education.

In order to be certified as a secondary school teacher (7-12), as stated in the application for certification, an applicant must have successfully completed the following:

> Twelve semester hours approved for Secondary Education, not less than two semester hours must be in supervised student teaching in the secondary schools. The remaining semester hours must include courses covering two or more of the following: Educational Psychology including Adolescent Growth and Development; Philosophy of Education; Methods and Materials in Secondary Education; Curriculum Development in Secondary Education; and Eighteen semester hours in major subject field or fields.

The Off Campus Teacher Education Program was approved as a certifiable program under the University of Massachusetts" Teacher Preparation Program Council. The program offered a supervised field experience for twelve to fifteen credits, far exceeding the state's requirements for a minimum of two credits. The Curriculum Development and Methods and Materials requirements were met in the prepracticum experiences, in seminars conducted by cooperating teachers and supervisors during the

field experience.

Foundations of Education Component

The Foundations of Education component included theory related to the philosophy, psychology, and sociology of education in the hopes that this would allow each student the opportunity to explore and examine the primary issues in education. This portion of the prepracticum introduced such issues as the learning process, child development, public schooling, compensatory education, and compulsory education. Staff members attempted to provide an over-view of a variety of issues so that the student would enter his field experience with focal points and with previous reflection upon problems in education. During the postpracticum period, each student was free to pursue relevant topics in depth. In addition, this aspect of the program would meet state certification requirements.

The educational foundations component was offered by a team of professors who took responsibility for that aspect of the prepracticum. They felt uncomfortable, however, with the state's arbitrary separation of the foundations into its various disciplines and preferred to center the course under foundations of education, refusing to identify an education problem as purely psychological, philosophical, or sociological. While each professor was willing to take responsibility for one of the components of foundations, they wanted to do it as an interdisciplinary team so that each aspect could be seen in relation to every other. As Combs (1968) has put it, "the problems students discover in the classroom are quite likely to involve every aspect of professional work, subject

matter, philosophy, purpose, social structure, administration, and human growth and development, not separately, but simultaneously" (p. 226).

The Off Campus Program staff felt it was important that students in the program understood educational foundations and their relationships to the schools and communities in which these students would be working and living. Staff felt, as does Lipkin (1970) that, "the understanding of the relationship between the school and society, which is unique to foundation studies, is a sine qua non for the resolution of the most fundamental and complex issues confronting education today. It is for the educational foundations professors and students to inquire, to understand and to act" (p. 488).

With this in mind, as well as the view of the teaching role as essentially a problem solving one, staff members decided to take the problems approach to educational foundations. This approach involved the isolation of a problem, the definition and recognition of the various sub-parts of the problem, the ways in which each of the foundations disciplines might approach the problem, and finally student work toward the solutions of the problems presented. It was hoped that the professors would work through several of these problems to provide a model and that in the course of the semester, the student would assume the task of analysis and resolution of ensuing problems.

Mink (1968) has emphasized the importance of this type of approach in the preparation of a teacher. He believes that students need the opportunity to explore and develop their reactions to conflictive and dissonance producing situations and issues in order to strengthen their

ability at problem solving and to nurture a spirit of inquiry.

From past experience in working with prepracticum groups, staff members knew that many of the students had not been in a public school classroom in years and were either not aware of or had never reflected on the "critical issues in education." It was necessary to find a vehicle through which we could confront the students with a problem, together with all of the facts surrounding that problem. The decision was made to use a series of films, such as A Desk for Billie and The Summer Children, each of which isolated a problem or issue in education and gave everyone a common frame of reference from which to begin discussion. Gliessman and Williams (1967) found that this approach of using a stimulation film to confront the students with realistic problems under conditions in which his analysis and problem solving could be guided was effective.

The course was scheduled to meet three days a week for two hours each day: Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, from 8:00 a.m. until 10:00a.m. For the Foundations segment, staff members decided on the following schedule.

On Mondays, the selected film was introduced by one of the Foundations professors, all of whom had seen it previously and decided how they would approach its presentation. After viewing the film, the team engaged in discussion, each member outlining the ramifications of the chosen issue from his particular viewpoint and challenging the students to take a stand.

In the beginning, the approach proved difficult due to circumstances

of time and place. The only available area for viewing the film was in a large auditorium, a setting which was not conducive to dialogue since it immediately placed the students in a passive, "audience" situation. The early hour and also the large number of students seemed to work against any creative interchange of ideas.

The off campus staff sought to alleviate this problem in communication by constantly relating the issues raised by the films to actual examples which had occurred at the various field sites in the program. Staff members were aware that the level of student interest would be raised because of their need to know more about these sites. The problem under discussion simply became more salient. As Combs, et.al., (1971) have stated, "the closer events are perceived to the self, the more likely they will affect behavior in significant ways. This is a basic principle of learning. The problem of helping people learn, then, becomes a problem of moving information into closer and more meaningful relationships to the self" (p. 93).

On Wednesday, discussions of the problems presented in the film were continued with smaller groups of from 25-30 students meeting with one of the professors and several students who had returned from their field experiences. The smaller group setting attempted to further increase communications as alternative solutions to the problems were confronted and examined.

Fridays were devoted to continued examination of the problem in even smaller groups of 8-10 students. These groups met in a variety of places: classrooms, the student center, coffee shops, dormitory lounges, for

example, with one extern serving as a group leader. The extern, by virtue of his experience, was well-prepared to understand the feelings and anxieties of the preterns and discuss their ideas for problem solutions in terms of concrete examples from the field.

Throughout the entire Foundations aspect of the prepracticum, it remained a pervasive goal to reveal education in relation to the wider community and to the individual learner, to offer opportunity for insight into the nature of learning, and to develop humanistic goals in the classroom. The problem solution approach seemed effective in involving the students in these goals and preparing them for their off campus field experience, as attested by feedback from the students themselves and from personnel at the off campus sites.

Skills Component

The second aspect of the Off Campus Teacher Education Program prepracticum was concerned with the development of the skills necessary for the field experience and for a career in teaching. The emphasis here was on giving each pretern the opportunity to develop teaching and classroom skills applicable to any learning setting. These included classroom management and "housekeeping" skills, curriculum planning, and specific teaching skills, among others. The pretern was given experiences working with learners under supervised conditions, allowing them to develop confidence in their strengths in the teaching role and providing them with evaluatory techniques. An emphasis was placed upon set induction, questioning, closure, and non-verbal communication skills. A detailed account of these skills is included in the Appendix. In addition, students

practiced lesson planning, unit planning, approaches to a child's non-creative behavior, and the use of audio-visual techniques to enhance lessons.

A variety of approaches were used in the development of these skills. Clinical supervision was an important focal point. The interns were supervised in the field by representatives from the University or a representative from the school district appointed by the University. In either event, the type of supervision given was the same, since both were trained in the use of Goldhammer's Model of Clinical Supervision (1969). This was the model used by the Off Campus Teacher Education Program and an abstract of it is in the Appendix.

For two reasons, the preterns were also trained in this model. First, it allowed students to become familiar with the process of teacher evaluation. The supervisor and the student thus would be speaking the same language and each was familiar with the concerns of the other in the development of the intern's skills. Secondly, training in this model of supervision allowed the students to engage in peer supervision as well as self-evaluation through the use of videotape playback throughout the prepracticum and field experience.

Microteaching and the various uses of videotape equipment were also given attention. Microteaching is a technique which staff members felt deserved an important place in the prepracticum program. It is a tool for allowing a student to develop and practice a specific teaching skill with a small group of real students, get immediate

feedback from a supervisor's or student's own critique, and then reteach the session trying to correct weaknesses and reinforce strengths. For a fuller description of the technique, see Allen and Ryan's Microteaching (1969).

The combination of microteaching and Goldhammer's Clinical Supervision Model contributed greatly to the student's understanding of the various skills necessary to present a lesson and the ways necessary to make that presentation effective. The Goldhammer model taught him what skills were effective and microteaching gave him a chance to develop them in a low-threat invironment.

An extensive program of directed observations in local classrooms provided the student with the opportunity to investigate and understand the intricate complexities of the educational setting which cannot be duplicated in the microteaching situation. According to Combs, et.al., (1971), a good deal of sensitivity can be acquired through the process of conscious observation. Each student made his own arrangements for directed observations. These were planned to continue over a period of time during which the student was encouraged to record his objective observations as well as subjective reflections in an ongoing journal. Observations ranged from a study of the community to the rules, regulations, and emotional atmosphere of a particular school. Examples of such directed observations are included in the Appendix. Previous experience with Goldhammer's model facilitated this directed observation.

Another component of the skills aspect of the prepracticum was concerned with teacher "survival skills." A section on the civil rights

of the teacher was incorporated to familiarize the pretern with some of the legal aspects of teaching. A questionnaire, distributed to the preterns on the first day of the prepracticum, asked them to make a decision based on what they thought the laws were and what they thought the laws should be. The results of the questionnaire were used as a basis to discuss the issues that seemed most crucial. After several introductory sessions, actual court cases were presented for the preterns to review and render a decision. The actual decisions were then compared to those of the students' and relevant points of law discussed. The questionnaire and actual court cases distributed are included in the Appendix.

Sessions were also presented on lesson planning, first aid in the classroom, classroom management and organization, use of audio-visual aids, certification requirements, and job placement. Once each semester, a weekend workshop was held in which eight or ten areas such as these were presented for students who wanted more information on specific topics.

The use of simulations proved a good way to acquaint the preterns with some of the intricate problems of the classroom, as well as some of the situations teachers are likely to confront outside of the classroom. Many of the simulations were taken from situations which had occurred during the field experiences of some of our interns. One, for example, involved a high school student of the opposite sex getting a crush on the intern. Others involved students engaging in destructive behavior, student-parent conflicts, and drug use.

The simulations served two purposes in the prepracticum. First, they offered a view of some of the non-teaching responsibilities of

teachers as well as some of the controversies, issues, problems, and personalities they might confront both inside and outside of the classroom. Too often, education courses confine their instruction solely to the events in the classroom itself. Such a limitation of scope either assumes that the student is aware of and can handle all the non-teaching situations in his career or simply reflects the feeling that such discussions are not important. Off Campus Program experiences in the field revealed that such discussions should be included in the prepracticum for the field experience.

The second purpose the simulations served was to develop further the student's problem solving techniques, giving him an additional forum in which he could immediately test his ability to first recognize and then resolve a problem. Before beginning the simulations, staff members reviewed problem solving techniques and discussed various approaches with the preterns. The preterns were given a model for problem solving (see Appendix) to help them through the first simulations, or until such time they developed a method they preferred.

The simulations served to reveal the number of alternative solutions to any problem, the need for teacher awareness and flexibility, and the extent to which deep personal involvement with students can sometimes distort common sense. Discussions analyzed the possible outcomes of each alternative both in resolving the immediate situation as well as in its effect upon the teacher's relationship with a classroom of learners. In addition, the simulations created an awareness of how the unintentional transference of a college community's mores,

concerning dress and drug use for example, onto the local school community can create feelings of misunderstanding and genuine mistrust on the part of community members. This is certainly important in a teacher education program based on off campus sites.

Site Introduction Component

The third component of the Off Campus prepracticum program dealt with Site Introduction. Program experience had indicated that once the student teacher began his field experience, without a prepracticum, it took anywhere from three to five weeks for him to get a working knowledge of the terminology, concepts, and organization of the school in which he was working. Staff members felt that was far too long a period of adjustment. One-quarter to one-third of the student's field semester spent learning things that could perhaps have been learned prior to leaving the campus seemed to be a waste of time when there were so many other unique things which could only be learned on the site during the practicum.

The Site Introduction aspect of the program dealt with developing an understanding of alternative structures in education, innovative practices and concepts, and definitions of terms which were becoming widely used and sometimes misunderstood. This included such things as open classroom, differentiated staffing, integrated day, open campus, and flexible scheduling. Staff members wanted the preterns to understand these innovations in general terms and to understand them as they were applied in the sites of their particular field experience.

After the first few weeks of the prepracticum program, the preterns knew where they would be interning. The staff could, therefore, present

a series of films, tapes, lectures by externs and cooperating teachers from the field sites, focusing in specific terms about each off campus site. Such sessions were conducted as part of the regularly scheduled meetings as well as being available after class or in the evening so that preterns interested in a particular innovation or site would have the opportunity to learn more about it.

In addition, the staff also tried to give the preterns as much information as possible about the sites in which they would intern in terms of the communities, expenses connected with travel, housing, starting dates and other data necessary to answer their questions and alleviate their anxieties. This phase of the prepracticum was handled almost exclusively by externs who had returned from field experiences in each off campus setting. Many questions usually asked staff members were directed at externs who had most of the answers in exact terms. Externs presented, in any manner they chose, the community in which they lived, and the general economic, geographic, cultural, and demographic facts about the area. They usually had slides or movies, anecdotes, and advice for the interns. They spoke intelligently about the programs in the schools, what their responsibilities had been, who provided assistance, how long they spent in school and how long in preparation, what materials were available in the school, and what the preterns should plan on bringing. Externs usually related a few vignettes about teachers, students, and interns, which helped give the preterns a "feel" for the site.

The community in which the school was located was always a subject

for concern. The externs could often discuss this more honestly and effectively than staff members. They could tell the preterns what they could expect from the community and what the community expected from them, what the political views of the area were, and how the community viewed education and educational change.

These components, the Foundations of Education, Skills, and Site Introduction, formed the basic prepracticum experience for the Off Campus Teacher Education Program. Staff members attempted, in the first formulation of the program to alleviate student anxieties, integrate educational theory and practice, and provide a variety of experiences for the development of teaching skills. The staff did not want the field experience to be the student's first exposure to the teaching role nor did they want him to enter it as an unprepared "apprentice" to a cooperating teacher. The components of the program were strengthened, refined, and rearranged as a direct result of problems in the internship brought to staff attention, feedback from students in the program as well as personnel in the various field sites, the staff's evaluation, unforeseen circumstances, and arising needs of students and cooperating schools.

As with any new endeavor, the prepracticum suffered growing pains. Staff members had ideas and skills, but the ways in which they originally chose to put them together for the students proved to be more inefficient than anticipated. The sixteen week schedule started off with five or six weeks of Foundations, followed by two or three weeks of off campus site presentation and selection, which in turn was followed by eight

weeks of skills and specific site preparation.

The students were attracted to this program for many reasons, not the least of which was the opportunity to leave campus, travel, and live in a new environment. Staff members were aware of this when we advertised the program, but seemed to forget it during the initial design of the prepracticum.

The preterns in the prepracticum wanted to know where they were going right away, but instead began work in Foundations of Education. Student anxiety multiplied during that period and they became preoccupied with their placement to the exclusion of the experiences in which the staff were trying to involve them.

After they received their field assignment for the following semester, staff members began to work on such things as educational innovations, clinical supervision, and civil rights and the teacher. As teacher educators, the staff felt these were areas which were extremely important for the students to confront and understand. To the students, however, the need to confront these issues had very low priority relative to their perceived needs.

They were concerned with the very practical aspects of teaching. They wanted to know what to do the first day, how to dress for their school, what course or subject they would teach, how to organize their classroom, what to do with discipline problems, how to maintain order. Until they felt comfortable with these areas, anything the staff tried to do beyond that seemed to be simply wasted effort.

Another problem was even more fundamental. There were times when

the students felt that staff members were not sensitive to their needs, because they were dealing with topics which the students felt at the time to be of very little consequence to them. The staff recognized that they could not be aware of all of the students' concerns and needs, but felt that what they were doing, the materials they were providing, the information they had for the students was of great importance and very relevant to them as future teachers. What staff members did not do in the original implementation of the prepracticum was help students understand why.

The staff members somehow assumed that the mere fact that they were talking about something should be evidence enough for the student of its importance. This, obviously, was not the case. Students in the prepracticum knew nothing about the realities of teaching. They had not experienced education from the perspective of a teacher, only through the eyes of students. The only things they were aware of were the obvious teaching responsibilities, never the underlying reasons or the subtle methodology.

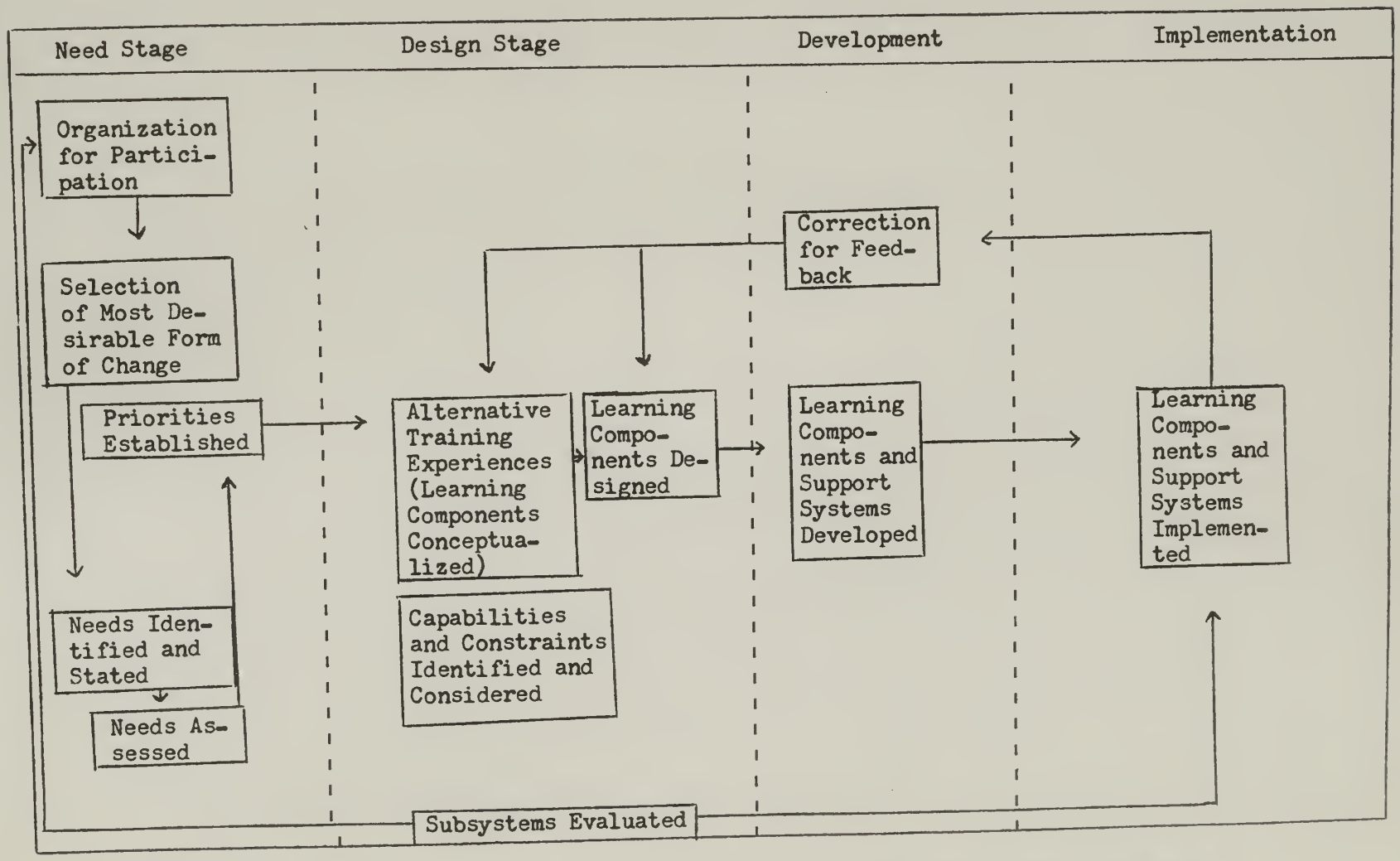
The Off Campus Program's Staff's task, quite obviously, was to reorganize the prepracticum course and, somehow, to try and make the student aware of the fact that what he felt as need reflected only a small portion of what it is to be a teacher. The staff had to demonstrate, as Combs (1968) has insisted, that the student had needs of which he was not even aware and demonstrated this in such a way that he would accept and deal with this fact.

The most obvious step was for all interested parties to meet, in

order to confront and resolve some of the problems which had weakened the prepracticum. Staff and interested students met several times to discuss the issues and make suggestions. While no one model or paradigm of change was used as a focus for discussion, the major thrust of the meetings can best be understood if they are compared to a conceptual model for the purpose of explanation.

On the next page is a rather comprehensive model for the development of a program in teacher education, as proposed by Cruickshank (1971, p. 55). It is a flow chart for the process of change in any teacher education program. One advantage in using a conceptual model is that it forces the user to inventory an existing program and the subsystems supporting that program, to see if goals, those of the staff and most particulary those of the students, are being met.

Since the program was ongoing, the Organization for Participation, was already established and included Off Campus Teacher Education Program staff, preterns, externs, and field personnel (by proxy). The group thus moved on to a Selection of the Most Desirable Form of Change. It was felt that the components of the prepracticum--Foundations of Education, Skills, and Site Introduction--were well constructed and if presented properly, could make a valuable contribution to the students' growth. The decision was made to modify the existing components, trying to reorganize the order of presentation so as to better meet the needs of the students.



A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM IN TEACHER EDUCATION
(Cruickshank, 1971)

A consensus was reached at the stage of Needs Identified and Stated. Members of the Off Campus Teacher Education Program felt that those student needs which had to be met in the prepracticum experience were: (1) the alleviation of student fears and anxieties regarding the field experience; (2) the development of general knowledge and skills applicable in any learning environment and of specific knowledge and skills students would need at the site in which they would intern; (3) experiences which would allow developing self-confidence in the assumption of the teaching role as well as developing evaluative skills for their behaviors in that role; and (4) an integration of theory and experience; in other words, an integration of action and reflection and factual input into their developing conceptual framework of teaching and learning.

Reaching the stage, Needs Assessed, the group felt that each of the needs must be provided for and attempts made to meet them in each of the three components of the prepracticum experience.

Having considered that the three components already existing in the prepracticum were worth while in the preparation of a teacher, but that somehow needs had not been adequately met, the process of changing the program led to new Priorities Established. Off Campus preterns and externs who were members of the group trying to improve the prepracticum were most concerned that the site information component be considered first. They felt that once the data types of information had been received, they were far more receptive to the more technical educational areas of concern. Quite simply, their fears interfered with their learning.

A consensus was reached that the component, Foundations of Education, be considered next so that the students would have an opportunity to witness and reflect upon the ramifications and consequences of facilitating the learning process. The Skills component was to be dealt with after that, so that teaching skills could develop within a conceptual framework and not become mere manipulative techniques. An additional priority was stated: that each of the components must have integrated within it not only experience and reflection, but the emphases of the other two components. For example, the Foundations of Education component should have within it specific learning skills as well as reference to the off-campus sites.

This discussion has thus far covered the group's work on the Need Stage of Cruickshank's model. Each of the needs identified will be considered individually in terms of the last three stages of his flow chart.

In terms of the alleviation of student anxiety, Alternative Training Experiences (Learning Components Conceptualized) were discussed. The staff and students of the Off Campus Teacher Education Program felt that there were a variety of ways which could be utilized to help alleviate student fears and anxieties all of which had one thing in common: to provide the student with as much factual, historical and personal information about each site as possible. It was decided that since this was the student's most immediate need it would be the first area of concern in the prepracticum.

Since we were dealing with many off campus sites, there had to be

many ways of presentation. As mentioned earlier in this chapter the externs provided the most comprehensive introduction to each of the sites and it was decided to use them more extensively in the program. Their use of slides, video tapes, movies, still photos, recordings and personal narratives provided a wealth of data for the preterns. Their knowledge of the off campus sites; educational programs, community, problems and pleasures, combined with their desire to talk about them and their ability to communicate effectively with the prepracticum students solved many of the initial problems.

It was decided that staff members from the field sites could offer valuable information on the same topic but from another perspective, thus striking a balance in presentations. They could also provide, via tapes or written narratives, their perceptions of the intern program what their expectations were of the interns and what the interns could reasonably expect from them.

The staff of the Off Campus Program could fill in the blanks left by externs or field personnel regarding dates of internship, contact people, registration, as well as insurance problems and supervision schedules. Since one or more of the staff members had been to each site they could also give their impressions, reactions and insights. For new programs it would be up to the staff to try to provide as much specific information as possible, since no externs were available.

It was decided that after these presentations the externs and representatives of the field sites would then interview and accept

students for the following semester. In this way, the students knew where they would be interning and a little about the school and the community. They also knew who they could contact on campus and at the field site to get further information. All of this information could clear the way for learning to take place in the prepracticum, as well as allow for maximum learning opportunities during the field experience itself since the interns would already know a great deal about the site.

An important consideration in the stage Learning Component Designed in relation to the alleviation of student anxiety, was to avoid repetition and incoherent ramblings by any of the three contributing parties. The design was to have presentations by the externs first, then the field reports, followed by a summary and a discussion conducted by staff. Each extern was identified, giving name, address, phone number and the location of the site in which they interned. The preterns were encouraged to contact externs for more information on any specific problems or questions they might have. Preterns were also encouraged to write to the field contact for more information.

Quite obviously, it was economically impossible to bring all the field supervisors to the university or to send the preterns for preliminary visits to the field sites. Tapes of interviews were devised to deal with this, Capabilities and Constraints Identified and Considered. It was also very difficult to make new programs sound as good as ones which externs could talk about from experience. The Off Campus Program staff had to rely on the pioneer spirit of the preterns,

given the limited information available. There was also a time factor. Although externs would gladly have spent hours or whole days discussing their experiences, there was much to be covered in the prepracticum and the site introduction was limited to eight class periods.

Having reached the stage Learning Components and Support Systems Developed, the group found it necessary to coordinate all of the learning component designs. Externs, field personnel and staff had to be contacted and advised as to the group's intentions and asked to prepare presentations covering specific areas; i.e., school (physical plant, personnel, philosophy, students, etc.), community (housing, demographic and political information) and any information they felt to be important. They were free to select their methods of presentation.

In terms of Learning Components and Support Systems Implemented, after all the other stages had been completed it was necessary to organize time slots and schedule the various presentations. Also built in here was time for feedback and evaluation so that the Off Campus Teacher Education Program could modidy the prepracticum as necessary.

The last item to be considered was Correction for Feedback. After all the information about each site had been presented, there was still some confusion as to travel arrangements, especially for those going to sites in Europe or the West Coast. The staff invited a travel agent, who knew about the program, to come in and talk about fares, accomodations, passports and other travel related information.

The agent made herself available for further questioning and also made arrangements for those who wished them.

Any questions which couldn't be answered well during the Site Introduction Component were researched and incorporated into future presentations.

The second need which the group had decided must be met was each student's development of general and specific educational knowledge and teaching skills.

By general knowledge and skills was meant those philosophies, concepts, approaches, and ideas about teaching and learning which are applicable in most learning environments with most groups of learners. This is the "necessary knowledge" considered in an earlier chapter: the relation of the school to the society and to the individual learner, developmental levels, the self-concept, the learning process and its facilitation, as well as a variety of modes of teaching.

By specific knowledge and skills was meant the application of the general knowledge and skills to the specific site where the student would be interning. For example, if the student were to be interning in a school based upon a differentiated staff model, he would need to know the specific skills expected of an "intern teacher" in that school. If his field site were to be one based upon the integrated day approach, he would need skills to facilitate learning in an open classroom.

This area formed the basis for the curriculum of the prepracticum. The basic curriculum has already been described and was retained by the group. The staff had definite ideas as to the content of the curriculum

and its presentation. What was needed was a conceptual framework so that it could become a more integrated, integrating prepracticum. Again Cruickshank's model can be used to demonstrate how a curriculum can be organized.

The task, Learning Components Conceptualized, had already been done in the first design of the prepracticum. An opportunity for each student's growth, general knowledge, and skills was provided for in the Foundations of Education and Skills components of the prepracticum. Knowledge about and skills for each specific field site were offered modularly.

During the design stage, it was necessary to work from the ideal to the real. Unfortunately, there were constraints and limitations placed upon the program by time. The staff designed a curriculum that could take a full year to implement. It was, therefore, necessary to pick and choose those experiences felt to offer the most in the least amount of time.

Development

The Learning Components and Support Systems developed previously have been described earlier in this paper: films, discussions, problem solving, large and small group meetings, meetings with resource personnel in preparation for a specific field site, directed observations, micro-teaching peer evaluation, and a wide range of inputs in terms of topics discussed and people discussing them. The knowledge of where he would be interning made various aspects of the program more relevant to students as did observations in local classroom, where they could see, first hand,

the theory, in practice, that they were talking about in class.

Learning Components and Support Systems were implemented as the "Course Outlined for the Prepracticum: Spring "72" in the Appendix indicates. While the outline was meant to serve as a time scheduling guide, the program ran pretty much according to the outline.

The students felt that more time was necessary to explore various facets of the Skills component. Therefore, several Saturday marathons were structured into the program to provide an opportunity for the students to sample or concentrate on various teaching skills. Skill areas covered in these sessions included micro-teaching differentiated staffing, modular scheduling, moral and expedientia1 approaches to non-constructive classroom behavior, and one-on-one teaching in the open classroom. Each of the skills presented in the regular prepracticum program was expanded and presented on these Saturdays. Students had the option to participate in these mini-workshops and gain more exposure to specific areas of interest.

The Foundations of Education and Skills components did much to help the students develop confidence and evaluate skills in teaching, the third need to which the program addressed itself, by providing the student with an exposure to a variety of attitudes, ideas, and practices. The students were able to increase the possibility of their spontaneity and creativity in the classroom, to realize that there is no one best way of teaching, and to use their experience, insights, and growing conceptual frameworks to developing a personal mode of facilitating learning. Support and assistance from the staff came as well as from

externs and other preterns. The training in supervision showed them what factors were important in interactions, and the micro-teaching showed how they might use a variety of instructional methodologies. The observations challenged their analytical thinking, forcing them to look at the often overlooked.

In a similar way, the Foundations of Education, Skills, and Site Introduction helped the students integrate, within themselves, the concepts of theory with the reality of practice. The staff always tried to juxtapose a theory with an example of how it can be observed or utilized in the field. Other means of integrating theory and practice include: the use of films to help point up theory in the areas of educational psychology, philosophy, sociology, and anthropology; the use of an observational worksheet so that the student could isolate practices and relate them to theory; the extern discussions regarding stated and practiced philosophies in the off campus programs; micro-teaching to try out theories of instruction; and tutorial work to examine the effects of interpersonal behavior on students. All of these served to bridge the gap between the often conflicting worlds of theory and practice.

The use of feedback from staff, students, and site personnel enabled the program to make constant adjustments to accomodate the changing set of experiences students would be facing.

For example, from feedback received from interns and field personnel, program staff realized that students were not being prepared as well as they might be for cross-cultural experiences and the diverse needs of children. Accordingly, the program instituted broad units of study in the areas of community relations, race relations, comparative education,

and cross-cultural differences. Externs from the Indian pueblos, from the schools in Colorado, and from the overseas sites made presentations on their particular experiences, prejudices and observations, all in an attempt to provide background and experience from which the pretern could draw when necessary.

As a further example, one of the problems interns had faced previously in off campus sites had been implementing innovative ideas of teaching in the various cooperating schools. While all of the schools involved in the program were innovative in some respect, they were at various stages of change. As Fanslow (1972) has pointed out, while many of the administrators were completely in agreement with the proposed changes in their schools, at times some of the teachers might not be and are often intimidated by interns who try what they perceive to be radical ideas. Consequently, an introduction to institutional change in education was included in the prepracticum.

Staff members received letters from interns in the field advising them to change the emphasis on certain areas from students who would be coming to replace them. As the staff returned from supervisory visits in the field, they would have suggestions on how to alter particular areas of the prepracticum. Administrators and teachers at the various off campus sites sent recommendations or positive reinforcement so that the program was able to keep a close check on how well it was preparing students for the field.

By working with problems such as these, The Off Campus Teacher Education Program were able to create a far better prepracticum model

in terms of the professional field experience for which it prepared as well as for continuing professional growth. The structure of the program as redesigned remained open to any necessary modification. As Cruickshank's model indicates, the evaluation of subsystems and correction for feedback should be ongoing processes.

CHAPTER V

AN EVALUATION OF THE OFF CAMPUS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM PREPRACTICUM

At this point, the discussion will turn to evaluate the prepracticum as it was redesigned in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program. This shall be done first in terms of the six assumptions advanced about teacher education in Chapter I.

To review briefly, the assumptions are: (I) the learner must have motivation, responsibility, and support for his growth; (II) warm interpersonal relationships facilitate integrated, wholistic growth; (III) real learning occurs in a process of experience and conceptualization, and alternatives must be provided for each individual's personal mode of learning: (IV) a teacher must be committed to the wide ramifications of his classroom behavior, and those students unwilling or incapable of assuming that responsibility should not be certified; (V) teachers must be prepared to teach in a wide variety of sub-cultures as well as in a wide variety of innovative educational settings; and (VI) a teacher education program must be based on a consistent set of educational and philosophical beliefs.

In accordance with the first assumption, the Off Campus Teacher Education Program sought to ensure that those students entering the program really wanted to become teachers. Staff members worked with a self-selected group of students, undergraduates who chose the Off Campus program out of all the others offered by the Teacher Preparation

Program Council, specifically because of the growth opportunities it offered beyond mere certification. In an attempt to determine personal commitments, the staff interviewed those students applying for the program, trying to assess their motivation and intent to assume major responsibility for their learning. Although not foolproof, the screening process helped to get a majority of committed student teachers in the program.

Films, panel, discussions, large group lectures, small group discussions, microteaching clinics, directed classroom observations and participation sessions were arranged by the staff to provide a background deemed necessary for the preparation of quality teachers. Students in the prepracticum assumed responsibility in the degree to which they questioned, debated, and demanded. In addition, the program sought to have each undergraduate evaluate his own learning. Whether through journals, papers, interviews with personnel from field sites, and in dialogues with our own staff members, they were called upon to develop an understanding of present circumstances and future goals. The staff, in turn, evaluated their growth through subjective means as the students prepared for field experiences. The only formal evaluation, as such, in the prepracticum was whether the student was allowed to enter his internship or whether he was asked to delay it for further preparation.

There are a variety of ways in which the prepracticum could have been improved in terms of this assumption. The staff failed to some extent in their responsibility to help the preterns perceive needs which they had to meet but of which they were unaware. A step in this direction

was taken by relating topics under discussion to examples in the field sites as much as possible. Perhaps, learning would have been greater were there more opportunity for direct experience in ongoing classrooms throughout the prepracticum. Assumption of various aspects of the teaching role, rather than just the practice of teaching skills, might have created problems for which the students might have more fervently sought solutions.

Students assumption of learning responsibility might have been greater if less staff energy had gone into offering presentations to the students and more energy into structuring experiences for them to confront and make their own roles in them more meaningful. The numbers of students in the program certainly would have made this suggested approach difficult. but increasing the use of externs, involving teachers amd classroom in local school districts, and making the prepracticum a one semester, fifteen credit rather than six credit course, just as the practicum, might have allowed more of this type of opportunity for the students.

The size of the program also seemed to inhibit a feeling of "partnership" in the teacher preparation process. The suggestions in the paragraph above might have served to increase the sense of a joint venture in becoming a teacher, simply by increasing the ratio of facilitators to learners. The staff was ready to help meet student needs, share concerns, alleviate anxieties, propose supplementary or complementary alternatives, help him recognize and deal with his strengths and weaknesses, and provide every resource for his growth. Somehow, much of this remained only a potential and was not acted upon by the students. Perhaps staff members

simply presented an image of a specific program of study, presented in large measure by staff, which had to be completed. Although the intent was to have students act on individual initiative, such opportunities were not structured by design into the prepracticum program.

The second educational assumption is concerned with the need for warm, interpersonal relationships in the facilitation of wholistic human growth. Again, the size of the program worked against this goal, although it need not have. It required much work to foster such warmth when many of the meetings were held with a hundred students sitting in rows in a cold, bleak auditorium. Staff personnel made a conscientious effort to make themselves available for and encouraged individual meetings with students. Externs working in the program did the same. In many instances, they were successful in achieving a personal relationship with an individual student. In most cases, they were not. Certainly, it is more efficient for broad areas of the "necessary knowledge" in educational background to be administered to large groups by resource personnel, but had the students been required to make more personal, independent exploration of educational issues, more frequent and less formal or structured interaction with students would have resulted, with a corresponding deeper commitment in the facilitator-learner relationship.

Small group meetings were arranged regularly so that students who felt inhibited speaking and questioning and debating in large groups would have the intimacy and freedom a small group affords for fuller dialogue. It had been a program aim to allow each student to attend the small group discussion of his choice; i.e., with that staff member who

approached the topic from the vantage point most relevant to the student's needs at that time. Large enrollments and scheduling problems, however, prohibited this and each student was assigned to a particular group for the duration of the experience. Too much came from outside the student and the structure of the program made it easy for him to permit that situation to continue.

The student, in both his cognitive and affective dimensions, was uppermost in staff members' minds. For one thing, the staff had learned from past experience that if a student were anxious and somewhat frightened about his impending field experience, he could learn very little of the informational and technical background necessary for him to have. Unless staff members worked with each student in all areas of concern, his anxiety and fear often interfered with the process of dealing with new information. The program may have been successful in alleviating his anxieties, but in retrospect it would appear that the staff concentrated too heavily on eliminating the negative rather than on facilitating the student's positive emotional growth.

As was stated in Assumption II, if the student is to become a teacher, he must be aware of his own feelings, attitudes, values, and modes of relating to others. Staff members attempted to help him get a clearer picture of himself by helping him analyze his responses to simulations, examples, films, discussions, experiences, and microteaching. They did not, however, provide any "education of the self" training or training in human relations skills. Combs, et.al., (1971) have found that the qualities of a good teacher consist in major portion of a clear insight into

and respect for the self and the ability to hold meaningful interpersonal relationships. The program, as structured, did introduce the pretern to a wide variety of affective resources, but did little to facilitate his growth in this direction.

The third assumption was concerned with the experimental and individ ualistic nature of learning. The program in its entirety; i.e., prepracticum, practicum, and postpracticum, was structured to provide periods of experience, reflection, and conceptualization which were interrelated. It does not appear, however, that enough opportunity for this cyclical process of learning and growth was structured into the prepracticum itself.

The prepracticum program allowed the initial development of skills, solution of practical problems related to the internship, and informational background for the further meaning of the field experience ahead. It did not, however, offer enough direct, ongoing experience with children and young people for the skills to develop in context and not remain mere manipulative techniques. The prepracticum offered experience in a wide variety of approaches to learning--doing, reading, writing, listening, seeing, for example--so that the prospective teachers would not only experience their own learning processes, but would have a varied repertoire of learning modes to offer their own students. This goal and these activities in relation to this goal could have been made more explicit to the preterns.

The program sought to present its students with as many alternatives as possible, to deepen and enriched their conceptual framework <u>vis a vis</u> the teaching role and so that their every dimension--cognitive,

emotional, interpersonal, creative, and moral--might be involved. Once again, however, the program as structured worked against this goal. Most of the input, its order and its emphasis, came from the staff of the program. Although it is obvious that a teacher education program must insure that its students cover a necessary curriculum; i.e., be able to base their teaching behavior upon educational theory, it is equally as certain that knowledge is not something which can be dispensed, particularly knowledge or growth in non-cognitive domains. Perhaps a more extensive series of experiences in ongoing classrooms, much like the "episode teaching" used at Portland State College in Oregon (Lundy and Hale, 1967) or the teacher aide approach described at Michigan State University and also in use in Florida's teacher education program (Combs, 1968), might have been helpful. Certainly, some prescribed route of personal initiative and creativity designed into the prepracticum would have made it easier for students to confront the issues and themselves more directly. As stated in Chapter One, the locus of real learning is in the interaction of the individual with his environment.

In terms of the fourth educational assumption--that teachers are assuming a role in society of incalculable importance--the overriding concern in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program was not preparing teachers, but preparing that rarity, good teachers. The immediate concern, of course, was the development and professional growth of the students in the program. However, the ultimate concern had to be for the hundreds of children they will influence in their lifetimes of teaching.

To this end, a system of controls was built in at various points throughout the Off Campus Program. A screening interview decided which of the students volunteering would actually be accepted into the program, and there were checkpoints established after the prepracticum, the field experience, and the postpracticum. These determined which students would eventually receive their teaching certification. This should not imply that weaknesses or failures or mistakes along the way did not receive attention. The program aimed to strengthen the prospective teacher. The final decision was based upon a cumulative record of performance, responsibility, and attitude throughout the program.

In thinking of improvements to this program, the way is clearly marked towards thinking in terms of teacher education programs which provide for a year of inservice work in a public school classroom as a final examination of teaching competency before certification. This involves an even greater degree of cooperation between the state, the teacher preparation institution, and the cooperating school districts. (See, for example, Smith, 1968.)

The depth of responsibility inherent in the teaching role was emphasized repeatedly throughout the Off Campus Program and students who either could not see or handle this responsibility were encouraged to look elsewhere for their life's work. Films and simulations were particularly effective in illuminating the wide areas in which the teacher exerts an often unknowing influence.

The fifth assumption was concerned with what might be called the cosmopolitan aspect of teacher education. This was, of course, the

basic thrust of the Off Campus Program: to prepare teachers who have gone through exposure to different surroundings and ideas, teachers who will be able to see beyond the walls of the traditional classroom. The prepracticum provided the insight into the wide variety of cultures and educational innovations available in the program, while the practicum provided an in-depth experience in one of the off campus sites.

The sixth assumption insists upon the necessity of a consistent philosophical framework permeating every aspect of a teacher education program. It is based upon the belief that all knowledge is interrelated and must be perceived as such by the learner, if what he learns is to be more meaningful to his life than the mere accumulation of isolated data. In the Off Campus Teacher Education Program, foundations of education, educational psychology, and educational methodology, for example, were not isolated courses but were offered, in relationship, as an integrated program. The program attempted to integrate separate modular learning experiences into the developing conceptual framework of each prospective teacher. All of this would have been clearer to the students had it been more directly verbalized.

In summary and in retrospect, the program was weak in relying too heavily on staff presentations, in not placing enough emphasis upon the student's growth as a person, and in not structuring, by design, opportunities for the students to proceed and experience on their own initiative. Perhaps, in terms of Cruickshank's conceptual model, not enough alternative learning experiences were considered during the design stage of program redevelopment.

There are significant strong points in the Off Campus Teacher Education Program's prepracticum experience. It prepared students for professionally oriented field experiences by structuring experiences for an initial understanding of the interactions in a classroom, by providing them with evaluatory techniques and with the opportunity for the development of teaching skills within a conceptual framework. It introduced them to a wide variety of background information, in an interdisciplinary fashion, to allow them to experience their internship with greater understanding and to help them focus upon significant problems during their postpracticum. It alleviated a great deal of anxiety, introduced them to educational innovations and the necessity of viewing the school in relation to the individual learner and to the larger society. In many cases, close interpersonal relation of a facilitator to a learner occured during the practicum in the relationship of the cooperating teacher and supervisor to the intern, and that was the setting for the student's greatest growth in the process of becoming a teacher. Perhaps the strongest point of the prepracticum in the Off Campus Program was helping the students see the teacher role as essentially a problem solving one; i.e. providing the appropriate experience at the appropriate time in a child's development, and providing them with models of and practice in the solution of a wide variety of related problems.

CHAPTER VI

A GUIDELINE FOR OFF CAMPUS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM PREPRACTICUM DEVELOPMENT

In these pages, teacher education programs, both traditional and innovative, have been examined in terms of their philosophies of education and the prepracticums which prepare for the students' field experiences. The various types of prepracticum components have been discussed in terms of the preparation they offered the student for a field experience of growth. The Off Campus Education Program at the University of Massachusetts, particularly its prepracticum components, was discussed in detail. In this last chapter, a guideline for those who would begin their own comprehensive prepracticum components to off campus teacher education programs, shall be offered outlining considerations to be made and drawing from examples previously mentioned in this paper.

Cruickshank has developed a rather comprehensive model for the development of a program in teacher education. It is a flow chart which can be applicable to any program. The specific content of each program would be different, but in terms of developing and implementing prepracticum components, each would have to consider such questions as students needs, types of learning experiences which can and should be provided, physical and economic limitations, scheduling difficulties, curriculum development in terms of content and sequence,

and mechanisms of evaluation, among others.

As Cruickshank has indicated, the procedural steps in the development of a program are quite clear cut. Certainly, they would have helped in the original organization of our program. The difficulties found in most program development however, arise in the formulation of an educational philosophy which will provide meaning and structure to the program and in the coordination and constant modification of the prepracticum once it is initiated.

Philosophical Basis for the Program

An agreement upon certain principles regarding the goal of education itself, the nature of the learning process, and the specific goals in education of a teacher is the first mandatory step. Ideally, this goal setting would be a joint effort of the faculty of the teacher education program, student teachers working in it, and cooperating teachers involved with it. The formulation of an educational philosophy requires reflection upon actions, examination of habitual patterns, and the questioning of previously held beliefs. It involves much dialogue, exploration, questioning, creative criticism, an eclectic point of view, and the discipline to question every "Thou shall" and "Thou shall not" existing in education. There are no simple directions for this basic stage of the prepracticum development. A statement of a program's philosophical base is, after all, a statement of deeply felt convictions uncovered in a dialogue with others involved in the implementation of the

prepracticum. Perhaps value clarification techniques or brainstorming might be helpful.

Nor is there a single philosophy of education which is inherently the "right" one. Certainly a program should take into account research, cited earlier in this paper, which has indicated the effectiveness of direct experience in relation to reflection, conceptualization, and further direct experience in an individual's growth; the importance of helping students perceive their needs so that what they learn takes on personal meaning and effects a change in their behaviors; and the indications that a person who has come to see himself more clearly, and consequently respect himself, makes an effective teacher.

Specific goals or competencies which one might consider preparing students to meet might include such things as:

the ability to asses an individual learner's level of development and cognitive functioning

the ability to structure an experience appropriate to an individual learner at a particular point in time

an understanding of and ability to apply effectively the various modes of teaching such as inquiry, discovery, synectics, behavior modification, etc. (Joyce, Weil, and Wald, 1972)

the ability to use curriculum materials, made and found, creatively

the ability to evaluate their own teaching skills

the ability to work effectively with small and large groups as well as with individual learners

an understanding of the underlying conceptual structures of the various academic disciplines and an ability to use such understanding in an interdisciplinary problems approach

the ability to relate experience to a conceptual framework and vice versa

respect for the individual learner in all of his dimensions

a clearer understanding of the self

a clearer understanding of the goals of education.

Field Experience Component

The next step in the development of a prepracticum is the examination of the existing field experience component of a teacher education program. The field experience will in large measure determine the nature of the prepracticum program, in terms of preparing the student for what will be required of him during the internship. The field experience should offer to prospective teachers the learning experiences and opportunities for growth and skill development which would be consistent with the newly stated philosophy. The sites available for field experiences should provide a wide variety of alternatives in terms of educational settings and innovation. Care must be taken to ensure that the cooperating teachers involved are themselves good teachers and act in accordance with the goals of the teacher education program. This could be done through questionnaires, interviews, and polling of externs. The opportunity for students to explore a wide variety of cultural settings should be considered, as well as the possibilities of providing different models for supervision and resource personnel involved in the student's field experience. This point in the development of a new or changed teacher education program is an ideal one for acquiring new field sites and working closely with old ones to improve the quality of experience they offer student teachers.

Requirements

The next basic consideration to make, after formulating a philosophy and examining the existing program of field experiences, are the specific teacher certification requirements which a teacher preparation program must meet. In most cases, state certification requirements should be exceeded, since they typically represent only a minimum set of standards needed for adequate professional preparation. As has been discussed, the requirements for teacher certification do not have to be presented or offered to the students in a program as the isolated entities listed in the statement of requirements. Each teacher education program should arrive at its own mode of integrating educational theory with practice, of exploring alternatives for meeting the necessary methodology and educational foundations demands for its students, and of finding new resources for teacher training whether in the community or in the cooperating school system.

A popular approach in the attempt to insure that students have met the requirements stipulated for certification is through the use of the competency based structure. A typical model for this type of structure is in use at Weber State College in Utah (Burke, 1972) which has established individualized "learning kits," allowing each student to proceed in meeting requirements set for him at his own pace. Each learning kit consists of a Title which identifies the topic; an Introduction which provides the setting for the topic; a Content component which identifies the problems or considerations at issue; a Pre-assessment component which assists the student in determining his already attained level of performance;

Behavioral Objectives which identify the behaviors sought as goals and the levels of proficiency at which they must be met; the Learning Experiences which are suggested or required means for reaching the behavioral objectives; a Self-evaluation component which helps the students assess their progress; and a Proficiency Assessment component which is used to determine if the behavioral objectives have been met (Burke, 1972, pp. 11-12).

Presumably, considerations of a program's philosophy, field sites, and certification requirements provide a framework for the development of a prepracticum. Areas for emphasis will emerge, modes of presentation will suggest themselves, and the initial structuring of the program in terms of values and requirements will have begun. As the program is further organized and developed and as it is implemented, several major areas of concern must be constantly kept in mind.

Maintaining your philosophical integrity

If a prepracticum is to be offered it must be well-grounded in the realities of the total teacher education program and must enhance, not obscure, the educational goals. If the prepracticum is to have any effect on the teacher education program it must evolve directly from the program's philosophy. Too often, teacher education programs will institute prepracticum experiences that have little or nothing to do with the objectives of the program. Experiences may be offered because of the availability of staff or materials, because of tradition, or because of local, regional, or national popularity of some new educa-

tional innovation. Not all programs can adapt to every new innovation or set of experiences. The first consideration to be made is that every experience offered as part of the prepracticum reflects the philosophy of the larger teacher education program.

If the particular teacher preparation program and the cooperating schools with which it works believe in experiential learning, the lecture method should not predominate in the prepracticum. If the program's philosophy holds that all knowledge is interrelational, the various components of the prepracticum must be related structurally, verbally, and as they are experienced by the students in the program. If the program espouses the belief that a good teacher is not necessarily one with all the "right" teaching skills, but one who is also able to establish warm, supportive relationships with learners, the emphasis in the prepracticum should be on helping each prospective teacher come to a better understanding of himself and the ways in which he relates to others. As a final example, if the program holds that there are different modes of learning, a variety of instructional alternatives should be provided for the students in the program to meet each of the program's goals.

Responding to the needs of the students

On the surface, this consideration seems obvious yet it is one of the most common shortcomings in teacher education programs. Many programs are conceived in response to a variety of stimuli and needs. State requirements, available staff, and resources often are the primary factors

which determine what will and will not be included in a prepracticum, rather than the needs of the prepracticum students for whom the program is ostensibly planned. Certainly, teacher educators are in a more informed position as regards the "necessary knowledge" a teacher must have and should be able to structure experiences which will allow the student to grow in those directions; but if learning occurs in the interaction of individual and environment, each must be given equal emphasis.

Once a program has decided to respond specifically to the needs of its students, the next step is to ascertain what they are. If the program is large, it is difficult for staff members to ascertain each student's emotional and cognitive needs and capabilities and structure experiences which allow the most growth for that student at that particular moment in time. Interviews, surveys, and questionnaires may be necessary to discover student needs. However, unless the students feel that what they have to say will be accepted and acted upon, the response will be as empty as the question posed.

Often, students are aware that they have needs which are not being met but are unable to verbalize or label them. Sensitivity to the students' non-verbal responses is mandatory. Typically, student needs include the alleviation of anxiety about the upcoming field experience, confidence in skill development, the ability to evaluate their own strengths and weakness, and information about field sites.

The staff of the teacher education program will, of course, see other needs of which the prepracticum students are not even aware. The responsibility in those instances is obvious.

Responding to the needs of the various field sites

These needs are probably the easiest to identify. Cooperating personnel as well as program personnel at the various field sites know what the needs are, can evaluate the present functioning of the interns, and will provide feedback to the teacher preparation program. The task is then to translate the feedback into learning experiences which can better prepare the students to meet the needs of their internship.

Acquainting the student with the educational philosophy operating in the field site--its rationale, jargon, problems, and successes--is mandatory. Many anxieties on the part of the student will be lessened when he knows that a specific component or requirement of the prepracticum is there simply because he will have occasion to know it in the field. For example, a cooperating school on a differentiated staffing model may need students specifically trained in team teaching or small group work. These can be dealt with directly in the skill development component of a prepracticum preparing for that field experience.

Each site will have its own unique set of standards and by preparing for these, the teacher preparation program is strengthening the field site and at the same time strengthening the total program of professional growth.

Effective utilization of staff

The most frequent way of staffing a new prepracticum in a teacher education program is using existing personnel and materials. There are instances, however, where present staff members may feel that they cannot work well in the program as newly operationalized or it is found that

they are not as effective as they might be. Certain adjustments may be necessary and, in most cases, prove beneficial. By drawing on the resources of area school personnel, staff from other departments who are willing to offer mini-courses in certain areas, films, books, videotapes and community resources, a comprehensive prepracticum component can be organized. As indicated earlier in this paper, externs are invaluable in providing information, sharing insights, and in helping to reduce the staff/student ratio in larger teacher education programs.

As stated earlier, it is important to employ a wide variety of training personnel in each student's growth. Equally important is the recognition and expanded use of the in-service teacher's talent in the prepracticum component of the program. Certainly, in-service training for practicing teachers should be an integral part of the program.

Effective utilization of the budget

Perhaps the best procedure in this area of concern is to establish a model for the deployment of budget money. Adjustments in the field experience component of the teacher education program can save money which can then be used in the prepracticum experiences.

For example, the standard ratio in the field experience is one supervisor for every fifteen student teachers. Large teacher education programs may use graduate students in education as supervisors, many programs use education professors who teach half time and supervise half time. In the Off Campus Teacher Education Program, at the University of Massachusetts, a minimum of $3500 was spent on the supervision of every

fifteen student teachers. If the responsibility for supervision in an off campus program is turned over to the cooperating school system's personnel, nearly $3000 of that sum can be saved yearly. The first year, of course, requires that cooperating teachers be trained in clinical supervision according to the teacher preparation program's model and that they be compensated for this in-service training in some fashion.

Such savings might go toward the purchase of videotape equipment, for example, used during the prepracticum or other materials or resource personnel which could aid in the development of a comprehensive prepracticum component.

Having arrived at this point in the development of a prepracticum to an off campus teacher education program, with priorities and goals established and each of the five above areas of concern taken into consideration, the staff of the program must concentrate on providing learning experiences for the students involved. The three basic areas of the prepracticum are Foundations, Skills, and Site Introduction.

At least some information about the site(s) of the field experience should be presented early in the prepracticum, to alleviate student anxieties by answering those questions which most immediately concern them. Also, when students are aware of the places and situations in which they will intern, there is a greater likelihood that the need to find out more about other aspects of the prepracticum will be aroused.

Site Introduction deals with such things as description of field sites in terms of the classrooms and the communities they serve, housing, travel expenses, and specific dates and requirements of the internship.

The educational philosophy operating at the site, its problems, strengths, and politics, the expectations the staff holds for the student teachers, the methods of supervision and profiles of the student population should also be included.

Often staff from the teacher education program who have visited the sites for supervision or in-service training workshops can answer many of the questions concerning the preterns. Externs or cooperating staff, either through personal interviews or cassette recordings, usually have more answers, however.

Foundations of Education is the area of the prepracticum program which deals with the psychological, sociological, and philosophical bases of education. Every attempt should be made to relate foundations to local schools during directed observations, to the field sites, to the initial development of teaching skills and confidence, and to each other. The problems solutions approach seems a good way to maintain this interdisciplinary model as well as to develop creative problem solving skills in the preterns. Simulations work in much the same way and can complement the problems solutions approach. Certainly, having the pretern assume a teaching aide role of increasing responsibility in a local classroom is an effective alternative.

Some important issues every teacher education program prepracticum should consider confronting are the goals of education, the nature of public education in relation to the society, value and moral development, developmental levels of children, alternative modes of teaching and learning, the student teacher-cooperating teacher relationship, the child-

teacher relationship, the child-parent relationship, the teacher-parent relationship, the learning environment, educational innovations, affective education, and community and race relations.

The Skills area of the prepracticum component does much to alleviate student anxiety as well as to help the student experience the relationship between educational theory and its practice. It provides an opportunity for him to evaluate himself, gain confidence in his own developing skills so as to lessen the possibility of imitating his cooperating teacher in the field experience, and learn the mode of supervision under which he will intern.

The Skills component should make extensive use of microteaching, situation analysis during classroom observations, tutoring, and work with small groups of learners in ongoing classrooms. Mini-courses in different kinds of methodologies, offered by externs or practicing teachers, are also effective. Community observations are valuable. The Skills component should also offer learning experiences in such areas as classroom management, lesson planning, the use of media, first aid, behavior and discipline problems, institutional change, and the civil rights of students and teachers.

This is a general guideline for the development and implementation of a prepracticum for an off campus teacher education program. Specific details and ideas have been discussed in other chapters and further examples may be found in the Appendix. Each teacher education program must find its own model for integrating these concerns, emphasizing certain areas, and introducing new topics for consideration. A

comprehensive prepracticum preparing students for field experiences in an Off Campus Teacher Education Program can do much to improve the quality of the teachers entering our classrooms.

Implications for future research

Should the reader be interested in pursuing further, any of the areas mentioned in this paper, there are identified here several problems which, if properly researched could offer valuable information to the area of teacher education:

Does a comprehensive prepracticum significantly contribute to the reduction of fear on the part of the student?

Does this reduction of fear affect the students field experience and other preparations for teaching in significant ways?

What effects would a comprehensive postpracticum have on

a.) the prepracticum?
b.) the field experience?
c.) the student in the postpracticum?
d.) their eventual teaching career?

How can the cross cultural differences involved in an off campus program be approached more meaningfully?

Is there a critical time-lag factor in a prepracticum? i.e. Does the student gain more from immediate entry into the field after the prepracticum, or should there be a time-lag?

How early in a student's academic career should a prepracticum be started, and how long should a prepracticum be conducted before allowing the student to student teach?

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APPENDIX

COURSE OUTLINE FOR INITIAL PREPRACTICUM EXPERIENCE SPRING, 1972

Week

I Orientation to programs
January 26, 28

II Introduction to off-campus programs

Jan. 31 - New Mexico -- Ramah and the Pueblos

Feb. 2 - Florida and Montreal

Feb. 4 - California programs - Temple City, Sherman Oaks, Marin Co.

III Introduction of programs (cont.)

Feb. 7 - Colorado and Dusseldorf

Feb. 9 - England

Feb. 11 - California programs (repeated)

IV Viewing and discussion of Videotaped classroom situations

Feb. 14 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Feb. 16 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Feb. 18 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

V Institutional Racism (Cosby Film)

Feb. 21 - Holiday (no classes) Thursday, March 23, make-up

Feb. 23 - Cosby film - Discussion

Feb. 25 - Small group seminars on Racism

VI Viewing and discussion of film "A Desk for Billie"

Feb. 28 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 1 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 3 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

VII Viewing and discussion of film "No Reason to Stay"

Mar. 6 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 8 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 10 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

VIII Viewing and discussion of film "Summer Harvest"

Mar. 13 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 15 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 17 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

IX Viewing and discussion of film "Children Without"

Mar. 20 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 22 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Mar. 23 - Make-up for Monday, Feb. 21 (Week V)

Mar. 24 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

X Spring Vacation - no classes

XI Viewing and discussion of film - To be Announced

Apr. 3 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Apr. 5 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Apr. 7 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

XII Viewing and discussion of film "The Summer Children"

Apr. 10 - Large group discussion in Auditorium - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Apr. 12 - Smaller group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

Apr. 14 - Support group discussions - Staff, Externs, Preterns

XIII School of Education Spring Marathon Week - This course will not meet this week. Schedules of the Marathon will be distributed on Friday, April 14, and specific Marathon sessions will be suggested for your participation.

XIV Survival Skills will include such areas as : Civil Rights and the Teacher, First Aid, Clinical Supervision, Microteaching, Lesson Planning, Behavior Problems, and any other problems or situations you wish to discuss.

Apr. 24 - Assigned paper due by 4:00 p.m. this date

Apr. 26 - To be announced

Apr. 28

XV Survival Skills (See above)

May 1 - Questionnaire regarding school observation due by 4:00 p.m.

May 3 - To be announced

May 5

XVI Survival Skills (See above)

May 8

May 10 To be announced

May 12

COURSE REQUIREMENTS -- PRE-PRACTICUM (E-75) SPRING, 1972

1. Regular attendance and participation in discussion groups.

2. Observation of a school of your own choosing. Your observation will be guided by a questionnaire which you will complete and return by 4:00 p.m. on May 1.

3. Read the five books listed below. After you have formed in groups, buy the books for group use. No one individual should have to buy all five books.

   a. Education and Income by P. C. Sexton

   b. Experience and Education by Dewey

   c. Educational Psychology by McDonald

   d. How to Survive in Your Native Land by Herndon

   e. Teaching in A Multi-Cultural Society by Stone and DeNevi (eds.)

4. Write a critical review on an "educational issue" developed in your discussion group and draw on the content of any or all of the five books assigned in #3 above. This paper must be no more than seven typed, double spaced pages or its equivalent if hand-written. Possible topics will be discussed beginning week IV.

OFF CAMPUS SITE PLACEMENTS FALL '71

Marin County, California
Edna MacGuire Middle School

Located just over the Golden Gate Bridge from San Francisco, Edna MacGuire is just beginning to reorganize their staff and program in the areas of Differentiated Staffing and Flexible Scheduling. You would have the opportunity to help initiate these changes and see, first hand, how educational innovation takes shape.

Temple City, California

About fifteen miles northeast of Los Angeles, the Temple City Unified School District is a model of Flexible Scheduling and Differentiated Staffing in both their elementary and secondary schools. You will have the opportunity to become involved in many teaching activities since, as interns, you will be considered integral members of the teaching staff.

Idaho Springs, Colorado

About forty miles west of Denver you will have the opportunity to work in elementary or secondary situations which combine some of the finest features in current educational innovation. Differentiated Staffing, Flexible Scheduling, Dial Access Instruction, and Open Campus Learning are among some of the experiences available to you. Situated in the mining area of Colorado you will be exposed to a wide cross section of cultural experiences.

Indian Pueblos
New Mexico

Emma Cappelluzzo has identified several Indian Pueblos which are willing to accept our students for semester or year long internships. These are very challenging positions requiring a great deal of flexibility on the part of the intern. More information on specific sites and requirements can be obtained from Emma Cappelluzzo.

Dade County, Florida
Whispering Pines Elementary School, Miami

A brand new school, a brand new staff, and a brand new system of education. The school is divided into three learning areas, no walls just open space where teachers team up to provide learning experiences for small and large groups, as well as individual presentations.

North Miami Beach Senior High School

Another brand new school just opening is North Miami Beach Senior High School. They hope to have ten or fifteen of our interns to help them institute their new programs centered around Modular Scheduling. These are year long positions which will provide the intern with a wide variety of experiences, as well as a pay check, since limited funding is available for those interested.

Montreal Oral School for the Deaf, Montreal Canada

An excellent opportunity for those interested in Special Education or

Elementary Education. The Montreal Oral School is an exceptionally good school, which utilized the most advanced audio-visual techniques and instructional activities to stimulate and excite the students.

Bristol and Bournemouth, England

Bristol is about ninety miles west of London, near Wales and Bournemouth is about sixty miles southwest of London on the southern coast of Britain. Both school districts will afford interns the opportunity to experience the British Infant School Models, where they began. Those programs are quite new and details are not clear, however. The staffs of the respective schools are most anxious to receive American students interested in Education and will provice much assistance to facilitate your "setting in" and educational growth.

Dusseldorf, Germany
The American International School of Dusseldorf

This is a K-12 school in Dusseldorf which is multi-cultural, primarily for children of American families in Dusseldorf. There are many nationalities represented in the student population. The staff is trying to implement an open classroom approach to education on a school wide basis.

Bill Fanslow is currently negotiating with several other International schools in Paris, Amsterdam, Turino and Milan, Italy. More details will become available later.

We would appreciate your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire which is designed to provide a variety of opinions concerning the rights of teachers

I am a:
_____ Teacher
_____ Administrator
_____ Parent
_____ Student Teacher

I think it is legal for the School Board to dismiss a teacher:		In my opinion a School Board should be able to dismiss a teacher:
Yes_____ No_____	1. Who strongly criticizes the Superintendent in a local newspaper.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	2. Who when off school premises, uses profane and offensive language.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	3. Who makes relevant reading assignments in a high school class which contain some obscene and offensive language.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	4. Who discusses his reactionary political views during math class.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	5. Who teaches a unit on sex education in his bio class even though most parents of his pupils object.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	6. Who assigns readings to his social studies class which are contrary to that of the American Government.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	7. Who assigns Marxist, Communist, Facist and Socialist readings in his history class, along with other reading.	Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____	8. Who dresses in ways objectionable to other teachers and contrary to community standards.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	9. Who wears beads, loud informal shirts and sandals and refuses to wear a coat and tie.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	10. Who regularly wears mini, or maxi skirts.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	11. Who wears shoulder length hair and full beard.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	12. Who lives in an inter-racial commune composed of males and females.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	13. Who holds a second job in the community working as a bartender in a place of questionable reputation.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	14. Who supports and frequents a nudist colony.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	15. Who lives a private homosexual life with a consenting adult.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	16. Who, when off duty, manages a campaign for a controversial political candidate.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	17. Who frequently attends meetings of the Ku Klux Klan.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	18. Who holds a political office, though nonpaid.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	19. Who frequently attends meetings of the Communist Party.	Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____	20. Who joins the "Black Panther Party" and marches on Washington on his own time.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	21. Who joins a peaceful sit-in in the School Superintendent's Office	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	22. Who joins the picket line around the office of the School Board.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	23. Who organizes a Women's Liberation group among the teachers.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	24. Who uses school mailboxes to solicit membership for a militant teachers union.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	25. Who urges fellow teachers to organize and participate in a strike.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	26. Who is an officer of the John Birch Society.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	27. Who refuses to sign an oath which states that "I will oppose the overthrow of the U.S. Government by force and violence."	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	28. Who refuses to list the organizations to which he belongs.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	29. Who lied about his religion	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	30. Who, on his job application, lied about a history of psychiatric treatment.	Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____	31. Who was untenured and not given reasons for being dismissed.	Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____

32. Who was untenured and dismissed without being granted a hearing.

Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____

33. Who was not allowed to have a lawyer represent him at a disciplinary hearing.

Yes_____ No_____

Mrs. Dean, a high school English teacher, wrote a play which was performed on stage in Westville, U.S.A. The play turned out to be highly controversial in the community. It offended many citizens' sensitivities related to matters of religion, sex and interracial cohabition. The State Department of Education creates a panel composed of parents-taxpayers, teachers and administrators to investigate whether or not Mrs. Dean's teaching credential should be revoked or suspended. She is charged with unprofessional conduct.

As a member of the panel, what would be your views? Why?

Mr. Smyth, a junior high school teacher, wrote a letter to the editor of the local paper, highly critical of the School Board and of the Superintendent. He charged them with having a "pedestrian mentality" concerning the curriculum, being unduly concerned with the small percent of college bound students and perpetuating "gross inequalities" in teaching assignments.

The School Board on the advice of the Superintendent dismissed Mr. Smyth on grounds of unprofessional conduct. Among the facts related to this case it is true that Mr. Smyth was incorrect in his estimate that there were unequal teaching assignments in the school. Should Mr. Smyth be dismissed or not? Why? or Why not?

Mr. Principal places unobtrusive listening devices into a room where teachers and/or non-teaching staff meet. They meet there informally, on school time, for rest, coffee breaks, a smoke, etc. Discussion taking place there can be overheard in the principal's office.

The principal justifies the arrangement by stating that: "The room is part of the school; the time during which these conversations take place is school time, and I only use information gathered this way for the benefit of the school. No information was ever misused nor will it ever be. In fact, if I misuse such information I will be guilty of unprofessional conduct."

Teacher A and custodian X complain that this is a violation of their civil rights. Is it? Why or why not?

Mr. Mod teaches English in the high school of a conservative community. The community is a racially integrated one, composed of businessmen, professionals and a variety of executives from government and industry. At the conclusion of the summer vacation, Mr. Mod, a tenured teacher, appears with a beard, his hair flowing down to his shoulders and in multi-colored "dashiki-type" shirts. The principal, together with his advisory committee of teachers requests Mr. Mod to cut his hair, at least trim his beard severely and not to use such disruptive attire on school time. When Mr. Mod rejects this advice he is ordered to do so by the Superintendent and the School Board "in order to prevent disruptions in the educational environment of the school, to provide for proper adult models for students, and not to endanger community support for the schools."

What should Mr. Mod do? Why?

The state laws of State X require that teachers lead the class in saluting the flag at the beginning of each day. Mr. Free, who teaches fourth grade, refuses to do so. His reason for the refusal is that: "currently our country is involved in an immoral and unjust war; the flag salute being a symbolic act supporting such immoral behavior I can't for reasons of conscience and religion lead such an exercise.."

A local group of law abiding citizens requests that Mr. Free change his ways or be removed from the classroom and his teaching certificate cancelled.

What should be done? Why?

Miss A and Miss B, two female physical education teachers in their late thirties, share a house and teach in Delta School District. In confidence, two parent-taxpayers of Delta District strongly suggest to the superintendent that the women are homosexuals and therefore should be dismissed.

As the superintendent what would you do? Why?

Technical Skills of Teaching as Used in Micro Teaching

Micro-teaching:

Micro-teaching is a scaled-down practice lesson in which the teacher teaches for short periods of time, 5 - 20 minutes, to a group of four students, on some topic in his teaching subject.

Purpose of practice sessions:

To change teacher perceptions of their own teaching behavior, and to provide training for specific teaching skills (18). See other sheets.

Micro-teaching provides an opportunity for the teacher to try new ideas easily and without risk to student learning.

Economy

Micro-teaching increases the amount of practice possible within a limited period of time, requiring fewer facilities and pupils.

Suggested Format

Individual lessons are typically 5 minutes long and are planned and taught by the teacher, critiqued, then replanned and retaught to a new group of pupils.

5 minute lesson

10-15 minutes to view and critique lesson

20 minutes to replan

5 minute lesson retaught

TECHNICAL SKILLS OF TEACHING

1. ESTABLISHING SET

The term set refers to the establishment of cognitive rapport between pupils and teacher to obtain immediate involvement in the lesson. Experience indicates a direct relationship between the effectiveness in establishing set and effectiveness in the total lesson. If the teacher succeeds in creating a positive set, the likelihood of pupil involvement in the lesson will be enhanced. For example, one technique for including positive set is through the use of analogies that have characteristics similar to the concepts, principle, or central theme of the lesson. By training teachers in set induction procedures and having them apply these procedures in micro-teaching sessions, their subsequent classroom teaching can be significantly improved.

2. ESTABLISHING APPROPRIATE FRAMES OF REFERENCE

A student's understanding of the material of a lesson can be increased if it is organized and taught from several appropriate points of view. A single frame of reference provides a structure through which the student can gain an understanding of the materials. The use of several frames of reference deepens and broadens the general field of understanding more completely than is possible with only one. For example, the Emancipation Proclamation becomes more meaningful to the student when it is understood from the frames of

reference of the Northern white abolitionist, the Southern white, the negro slave in the seceded South, the free Negro, the European clothing manufacturer, the political leaders of England, and as an example of the reserve powers of the American President, than if it is simply discussed as the document issued by Lincoln which freed the slaves. Teachers can be trained to become more powerful teachers as they are taught to identify many frames of reference that might be used in instruction, to make judicious selection from among them, and then to present them effectively.

3. ACHIEVING CLOSURE

Closure is complementary to set induction. Closure is attained when the major purpose, principles, and constructs of a lesson, or portion of a lesson, are judged to have been learned so that the student can relate new knowledge to past knowledge. It is more than a quick summary of the ground covered in a lesson. In addition to pulling together the major points and acting as a cognitive link between past knowledge and new knowledge, closure provides the pupil with a needed feeling of achievement. Closure is not limited to the completion of a lesson. It is also needed at specific points within the lesson so that pupils may know where they are and where they are going.

4. RECOGNIZING AND OBTAINING ATTENDING BEHAVIOR (Visual cues)

Teachers can be trained to become more sensitive to the classroom behavior of pupils. The successful experienced teacher, through visual cues, quickly notes indications of interest or boredom,

comprehension or bewilderment. Facial expressions, directions of the eyes, the tilt of the head, and bodily posture offer commonly recurrent cues which make it possible for the skilled teacher to evaluate his classroom performance according to the pupil's reactions. He can then chance his "pace," vary the activity, introduce new instructional strategies as necessary, and improve the quality of his teaching. Unlike his more experienced counterpart, the beginning teacher has difficulty perceiving and interpreting these visual cues. Through 16mm motion picture films and 35mm still picture protocols of classrooms, and vidotape recordings in micro-teaching sessions, supervisors are able to sensitize teachers to visual cues of pupil's attending and nonattending behavior.

5. PROVIDING FEEDBACK

The feedback process in the training of teachers may be simply stated as providing "knowledge of results." Teachers often ignore the availability of information accessible during the lesson. Questioning, visual cues, informal examination of performance, are immediate sources of feedback. Teachers can be taught appropriate techniques to elicit feedback from students to modify their lesson accordingly. Teachers unconsciously tap a variety of feedback sources but unless they are sensitized, they tend to rely unevenly on a limited number of students as "indicators" and to rely on a restricted range of feedback cues.

6. EMPLOYING REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS (REINFORCEMENT)

Reinforcing desired pupil behavior through the use of reward and

punishment is an integral part of the teacher's role as director of classroom learning. Substantial psychological evidence confirms the value of reinforcement in the learning process. The acquisition of knowledge of specific techniques of reward and punishment and the development of skill in using them appropriately in specific situations is most important in training a beginning teacher. Experience indicates that teachers can acquire skill through micro-teaching practice in reinforcement of pupil learning.

7. CONTROL OF PARTICIPATION

Micro-teaching sessions enable teachers to analyze the kinds of pupil-teacher interaction which characterize their teaching. Control of pupils' participation is one important variable in the successful learning for the pupils. Micro-teaching sessions provide an opportunity for teachers to practice different techniques for encouraging or discouraging classroom interaction and to gain insight into the casual relationship between a series of teacher-pupil interactions. When a teacher develops the skill to analyze and to control the use of his accepting and rejecting remarks, his positive and negative reactions, his patterns of reward and punishment, he has taken a major step toward effective teaching.

8. REDUNDANCY AND REPETITION

The purpose of this skill is to clarify and reinforce major ideas, key words, principles, and concepts in a lecture or discussion. The use of redundance and repetition is a powerful technique in focusing and highlighting important points, and describing them from a different

point of view. Improper use of this skill can cause confusion and poor learning among the students, while proper use can direct their attention to points which the teacher wishes to emphasize. There are two main varieties of repetition: (1) Literal repetition - using simple, massed, disturbed, and accumulative repetition; and (2) figures of speech - metaphors, analogies, verbal emphasis, focusing, gestures, and visual highlighting.

9. ILLUSTRATING AND USE OF EXAMPLES

The use of examples is basic to teaching for good, sound, clear teaching. Examples are necessary to clarify, verify, or substantiate concepts. Both inductive and deductive uses of examples can be used effectively by the teacher. Effective use of examples includes: (1) starting with simple examples and progressing to more complex ones; (2) starting with examples relevant to students' experience and knowledge; (3) relating the examples to the principles or ideas being taught; (4) checking to see if the objectives of the lesson have been achieved by asking students to give examples which illustrate the main point.

10. ASKING QUESTIONS

Prior to the development of probing and higher order questioning techniques comes the skill of asking questions, period. Too often beginning teachers lecture and tell students rather than asking questions which can elicit the answers from the students themselves. Training techniques have been developed by which teachers can see model videotapes of teachers demonstrating this skill, and by practicing in a micro-teaching situation increase the number of questions which they ask

of students. Having achieved this goal the emphasis can be placed on higher order questioning techniques.

11. THE USE OF HIGHER ORDER QUESTIONS

Higher order questions are defined as questions which cannot be answered from memory or simple sensory description. They call for finding a rule or principles rather than defining one. The critical requirements for a "good" classroom question is that it prompts students to use ideas rather than just remember them. Although some teachers intuitively ask questions of high quality, far too many over-emphasize those that require only the simplest cognitive activity on the part of the students. Procedures have been designed to sensitize beginning teachers to the effects of questioning on their students and to provide practice in forming and using higher order questions.

12. THE USE OF PROBING QUESTIONS

Probing requires that teachers ask questions that require pupils to go beyond superficial "first-answer" questions. This can be done in five ways: (1) asking pupils for more information and/or more meaning; (2) requiring the pupil to rationally justify his response; (3) refocusing the pupil's or class's attention on a related issue; (4) prompting the pupil or giving him hints; and (5) bringing other students into the discussion be getting them to respond to the first student's answer.

13. TEACHER SILENCE AND NON-VERBAL CUES

Many teachers are frightened by silence or pauses in classroom discussion. They usually hasten to fill silence gaps by talking. What

many teachers do not realize is that teacher silence is a powerful tool in the classroom. Teacher pausing can be used after: (1) Introductory statements to pressure the students into thinking about the teacher's statement; (2) questions to the students to give them time to think about a proper answer; (3) questions from the students to direct the question to another student with a look or gesture; (4) student response to elicit a continuing response.

14. COMPLETENESS OF COMMUNICATION

Although the importance and need for clear communication is blatant, it is not often the guiding principles in actual communication. Sensitivity training on the importance, and the difficulty, of being understood is the focus of this skill. Several classroom games have been devised which dramatically demonstrate to teachers that what they consider to be clear instructions are often not clear at all to the students. Sensitivity training in the skill of communicating with others will produce teachers who are more responsive to possible miscommunication.

INTEGRATIVE SKILLS

The following are classified as integrative skills because they consist of combinations of other skills. Mastery of the separate skills is not enough to produce the overall desired behavior. For this reason new skills are listed which consist largely of other skills in a different context.

16. VARYING THE STIMULUS SITUATION

Psychological experiments have shown that deviations from standard,

habitual teacher behavior result in higher pupil attention levels. Teachers should be sensitized to their habit patterns and made aware of attention producing behavior that they, as the stimulus object, can control. The behaviors include teacher movement, gestures, focusing pupil attention, varying the interaction styles, pausing, and shifting sensory channels.

17. LECTURING

Training in some of the successful techniques of lecturing based upon a communication model is the focus for this skill. Delivery techniques, use of audio-visual materials, set induction, pacing, closure, redundancy and repetition, and other skills related to lecturing are included.

18. PRE-CUEING

Pupils are often called on in class to answer questions. Frequently the student does not know the answer and either wastes class time talking in circles, or else admits ignorance. The teacher could cue the student 5 or 10 minutes ahead so the student could prepare himself, thus making a significant contribution to the class. The alerting or cueing of students is a teacher technique which can be used to good purpose in the classroom.

A SUMMARY OF ROBERT GOLDHAMMER'S MODEL OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION

The prototype of a sequence of clinical supervision consists of the five stages.

STAGE 1: The Preobservation Conference

This stage is mainly intended to provide a mental framework for the supervisory sequence to follow. Although its functions can be viewed somewhat differently by the teacher and the supervisor, in general, in our practice, it has served the following purposes:

(a) Reestablishing Communication; relaxation: The idea here is simply that it can be useful for Teacher and Supervisor to talk together sometime in the sequence before the supervision conference, if only to renew their habits of communication, their familiarity with one another's intellectual style and expressive rhythms, for both of two reasons: (1) in some measure, to eliminate problems of reestablishing mutual adjustments from the supervision conference (at which the stakes are sometimes rather high), and (2) to reduce anticipatory anxieties as both parties prepare to join again in important collaboration. In homely terms, we seem to find that Supervisor and Teacher can be more relaxed in the following stages of the sequence if they have been able to talk together successfully in the initial stage.

(b) Fluency: Both Teacher and Supervisor require fluency in Teacher's plans for the teaching that will, presumably, be observed. Understanding the teacher's frame of reference is necessary for either of two purposes--for helping him to function successfully in his own terms or for modifying his plans according to concepts existing in the supervisor's frame of reference. The principal means, in this stage, for enhancing both members' fluency, is for the teacher to present his most polished and updated version of plans whose formulation was begun during the prior sequence of supervision in this cycle. His presentation serves dual purposes: Supervisor learns just what Teacher has in mind, and Teacher is able to test and increase his own fluency by verbalizing his ideas to Supervisor.

(c) Rehersal: In a rudimentary sense, we can imagine that the simple enunciation of his plans provides Teacher with a degree of rehearsal for his teaching, at least a conceptual rehearsal. Additional opportunities exist in Stage 1 for more thorough rehearsal of instructional behavior.

(d) Revisions: Besides providing Teacher with a chance to rehearse planned episodes of his instruction, Stage 1 creates an opportunity for last-minute revisions in the lesson plan.

FIELD AND MICROTEACHING SUPERVISION

I. Pre-observation conference

A. Agree on goals of supervision (value free and non-evaluative.)

B. Contract--describing the responsibility of supervisor and teacher
1. Agree on an observation instrument or technique
2. Agree on the role each is going to play

II. Observation--use instrument in B-1 or describe technique.

III. Analysis and strategy

A. Analyze data from observation instrument

B. Develop a strategy for the conference with the teacher. The focus of the conference should be to improve the teacher as per contract.

IV. Post observation conference

A. Implement strategy developed in III-B.

B. Help the teacher implement the proposed changes.

C. Pre-observation conference for next visit (IA and B)

V. Process evaluation--discussion between teacher and supervisor of the relative success or failure of each of the four stages of supervision.

(e) Contract: The preobservation conference is a time for Teacher and Supervisor to reach explicit agreements about reasons for supervision to occur in the immediate situation and about how supervision should operate. Among other things, having established what the teacher is after and how he thinks he feels about the whole business, the question ought to be raised of whether observation and the rest of the sequence should take place at all.

STAGE 2: The Observation

The supervisor observes to see what is happening so that he can talk about it with the teacher afterwards. He generally writes down what he hears and sees as comprehensively as possible. Instead of recording general descriptions, the observer should get the stuff down verbatim; everything everybody says, if that's possible, and as objective an account of nonverbal behavior as he can manage. Why?--because in the supervision to follow, the main job will be to analyze what has taken place in the teaching.

One reason for Supervisor to observe is that, being engaged as he is in the business of teaching, Teacher cannot usually see the same things happening as a disengaged observer can. By adding eyes, the data are increased. Another reason--this also backfired occasionally--is to demonstrate commitment to Teacher, a serious enough commitment to justify paying such close attention to his behavior as the observer must.

Another rationale for Stage 2 is that by putting himself in close proximity to the teacher and the pupils at the very moments when salient problems of professional practice are being enacted, the supervisor occupies a position from which he can render real assistance to Teacher, in Teacher's terms, and according to specific observational foci (tasks) that Teacher may have defined in Stage 1.

If observational data can be used for developing solutions to problems of practice, then such data can also be employed to authenticate the existence of certain problems, to make sure they are real, and as bases for articulating previously undefined problems.

STAGE 3: Analysis and Strategy

Stage 3 is intended for two general purposes: first, in Analysis, to make sense out of the observational data, to make them intelligible and manageable; and second, in Strategy, to plan the management of the supervision conference to follow, that is, what issues to treat, which data to

cite, what goals to aim for, how to begin, where to end, and who should do what.

The analytical component of clinical supervision is intended to make it safer--less whimsical, less arbitrary, less superficial--than supervision of the past. And particularly when Teacher is trained to participate in analysis of his own teaching, based on the truest and most comprehensive representations of that teaching that can be created, his chances of experiencing profit from the enterprise are most favorable.

Supervisor's next step, after having performed an analysis of the observational data, is to make decisions about how the supervision conference should be conducted.

The principal rationale for Strategy, like that of instructional planning, is that a planned approach toward specified goals by deliberate processes is more likely to work out than a random one.

In a more general sense, if supervision is intended to result in process outcomes as well as in purely technical ones, that is, if it is intended to affect patterns of behavior and underlying psychological predispositions as well as simply to transmit substantive information, then it is more difficult to prepare for supervision than it would be otherwise. Rather than simply having to prepare one's material, as for a lecture, one must additionally prepare oneself for collaboration intended to benefit one's supervisee; both technical and process outcomes depend very much upon one another.

If Teacher is functioning well in supervision, if he is relaxed, intelligent, committed, professionally creative, and functioning autonomously, than Strategy gives him time to order his priorities and to screen issues for the conference accordingly.

STAGE 4: The Supervision Conference

In succinct terms, the supervision conference is intended:

1. To provide a time to plan future teaching in collaboration with another professional educator. Perhaps the best measure of whether a conference has been useful, in Teacher's framework is whether it has left him with something concrete in hand, namely a design for his next sequence of instruction.

2. To provide a time to redefine the supervisory contract: to decide what directions supervision should take and by what methods it should operate (or whether supervision should be temporarily terminated.)

3. To provide a source of adult rewards. In common practice,

teachers have few opportunities for their value to be acknowledged by other adults who have professional sophistication and who know their work, that is, Teacher's work, intimately.

4. To review the history of supervision, that is of the problems that Supervisor and Teacher have addressed formerly and to assess progress in mastering technical (or other) competencies upon which Teacher has been working.

5. To define treatable issues in the teaching and to authenticate the existence of issues that have been sensed intuitively.

6. To offer didactic assistance to Teacher, either directly or by referral, in relation to information or theory that Teacher requires and of which Supervisor may have relatively advanced knowledge.

7. To train Teacher in techniques for self-supervision and to develop incentives for professional self-analysis.

8. To deal with an array of factors that may affect Teacher's vocational satisfaction as well as his technical competency. The question of what issues of this kind are appropriate to treat in supervision depends largely upon the participants' inclinations, the supervisor's special skills for such work, pertinent situational variables and the overriding question of how supervision can be therapeutic (small "t") without becoming Therapy (large "t").

STAGE 5: The Post-Conference Analysis ("Postmortem")

The postmortem is the time when Supervisor's practice is examined with all of the rigor and for basically the same purposes that Teacher's professional behavior was analyzed theretofore. In both instances our principal rationale is that examined professional behavior is more likely to be useful--for everyone--than unexamined behavior; that, perhaps, the only truly worthwhile existence is an unexamined existence.

The postmortem arises from pragmatic, methodological, and historical considerations. First, it represents a basis for assessing whether supervision is working productively, for ascertaining its strengths and weaknesses, and for planning to modify supervisory practices accordingly. In this context, any and all variables are appropriate to review: supervisory technique, implicit and explicit assumptions, predominating values, emotional variables, technical and process goals, and the like. Second, Supervisor can demonstrate skills of self-analysis by familiarizing Teacher with the work he does regularly in postmortem. In other words,

if he chooses, for example, to have Teacher witness his verbal enactment of a postmortem in the context of some other teacher's supervision, by this technique Supervisor could turn the PM to didactic advantage in his supervision. Third, Teacher's awareness of Supervisor's regular practice of Post-Conference Analysis should help to offset misgivings that may exist concerning Supervisor's commitment and the historical disparity between his professional vulnerability and the Teacher's.

ONE WEEK OF
SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY OBSERVATIONS
FOR PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS
SPRING 1970

School of Education
Emma M. Cappelluzzo

GLOBAL OBJECTIVES:

a. to develop awareness of the school and who its members are. (roles rites of the school culture)

b. to perceive influences of community and the home on youth and school.

c. to sharpen skills of observation regarding school/community.

d. to engage in short-term immersion as an observer-participant.

AREAS TO BE CONSIDERED:

RITES AND RITUALS: THE SOCIOLOGY OF THE SCHOOL

I. Culture of the School

Administration, Teachers, Staff, Students

II. Community Influences

Special Interest Groups--PTA, Birch Society, press

Political spheres and the curriculum--controversy

Sex Education--Human relations--Minority relations

III. Data and the Community

Sources of information:

Community agencies

Public Health

Fire Department

Police Department

CAP agencies

City Hall (profile-statistics)

Real Estate Agency (demographic-housing & social class)

City Hospital (official records-emergency room)

Recreation facilities (formal-informal)

Approaches:

Observation-participation

Entry

Collection data (notes-tapes-materials)

Confidentiality (responsible & ethical behavior)

Language of the observed (verbal-nonverbal)

Value judgements (own-other-differences-similarities)

Scheduling

The scheduling of the program will be as follows:

Week One

During this week the student teachers will receive training as classroom and community observers and will receive assignments which will be carried out during the second week.

Week Two

During this week the student teachers will be asked to visit the schools and communities in which they will be student teaching. They will meet their cooperating teacher, observe classes, and generally get to know the school and the community.

Week Three

The student teachers will return to the University for small group discussions of the observation assignments.

. . . . . .

To be able to execute the proposed three-week experience, it is necessary to have your full cooperation.

The following is an example of some considerations to consider during observation week. It covers two overlapping areas, the Culture

of the School and the Community-School Relationships.

A. Culture of the School. This includes students, staff, teachers, administrators.

Questions to ask; things to look for:

- Where is the school located in community?
- How old is the school?
- Is it a parent, teacher, administration, or student centered school? What evidence do you have to support your selection?
- Does the School have an adjoining playground or recreational area? When are they used most? Before or after school?
- Where is the library? How does a student gain use of the library? What are the library procedures?
- Nurses office: What are major concerns of health administrator and children in this school? What are major complaints (types of illness)? What are procedures for being sent home or remaining in the health office?
- Where does physical education take place? What is the usual activity for physical education? Who participates? What do students do if they are not participating?
- What is the procedure for late (tardy) students? Who administers this task?
- Do students move to other classrooms during the school day? What is the procedure?
- Is there a dress code? Who set the dress code? Infractions of dress code are handled in what manner?
- What are some causes of discipline?
- Ask a counselor what the reentry system is for a student who has been suspended or expelled?

- Is anyone attempting to deal with the problems of students? In what manner?

- Is the school aimed at serving students and their needs?

- Is there a teacher's lounge? Describe the function of this lounge.

- Do teachers have power to make educational decisions within the school?

- How does a student make an appointment to see principal or counselor?

- Does the student council have power to promote change in the school?

- Does the student council represent the entire student body?

- Have you observed parents in the school? What are they doing?

- Is there a lunchroom in this school? Describe the facility. Do you see particular groups congregating during lunch? Describe.

- Listen for language of students in class and out of class. Any difference?

- Talk to administrator, supporting staff-secretary-janitors-talk to teachers, librarian, nurse, find out how each describes the student population.

- Talk to students.

- Are students trusted? Support your answer.

- Ask about extracurricular activities discipline-unusual projects in the school.

- What do you feel is unusual about this school?

The above questions will serve to acquaint you with the facilities and procedures of the school as well as the students and staff of the

school. How well you listen and observe will be evident in your journal. Your journal will attempt to:

a. answer some of the questions previously listed.

b. describe the school as carefully and fully as you can within the time limitations of a week.

c. describe what you hear and see with clarity and preciseness.

You may devote a section of your journal to impressions. Remember impressions are value laden. It may be helpful to divide your journal into three portions:

a. Descriptions (factual with no emotional comments)

b. Personal reactions (based on above, but your value judgements will determine what you record.)

c. Final conclusions (generalizations you come up with which give cohesiveness to your week in the school and will indicate your impressions of this school.)

Another segment of the total experience that bears investigation by prospective teachers:

COMMUNITY AND THE SCHOOL

Question to ask. Places to see and visit.

How many people live in the area served by the school?

Who are they? Laborers, migrants, professional or white collar?

What kinds of dwellings do the students live in?

What are the recreational facilities of the area?

Formal (sponsored by city-town-school)

Informal (hangouts-frequented by students)

What do students do outside of school? Where?

Is the school taking any effort to involve the community in its day to day operation?

What kinds of transportation are available? Bus, train, etc.?

Where is the nearest hospital?

Who goes to the emergency room there on weekends?

Gain permission - spend an evening in waiting room.

Where is the nearest shopping area? In your opinion is it a large or small center? Where do people shop in this area? Does the shopping area serve any student function?

Visit law enforcement agencies. What is highest incident of crime? Talk to a probation officer.

Visit a real estate agency. What is the real estate picture in this community?

Who works in local industries? What are they and where are they located?

Is the school a reflection of the community or does it lead the community?

Visit health agencies serving this community. What are most common mental illnesses in this area? Other areas surrounding this community?

Is the population growing or decreasing? Why? Visit city hall and find out growth patterns.

In the most recent election (local/national) how many voted? (City Hall)

How many drive-ins, movie theaters, art stores, cultural centers serve the area?

Determine socio-economic status of this community employing Warners Index of Social Characteristics.

How many churches serve this area? Do they leave an influence on students?

Ask for literature describing community.

Interview five individuals and develop a description of the community by community dwellers.

The preceding questions should provide a general picture of the

community in which you will be student teaching. You will know where the students live, what kinds of environments affect them more about socio-economic and environmental climate of the community. The information will be also incorporated into your Journal - Section B (Utilizing the same approach to Journal recording as in Journal - Section A - The School).

References:

A reserve list of books and articles will be available in the School of Education Library for first three weeks of the semester. They will be listed under Observation-Participation - Cappelluzzo.

Problem Solving

One branch of learning theory that has received attention in recent years is problem solving. Many educational psychologists and educators believe problem solving is one of the most valuable tools in helping people learn. How does it work?

In a teaching-learning situation when a problem arises for which the learner does not have a solution, the teacher may offer a solution and the theory or skill that enables the learner to arrive at that solution. This approach has obvious weaknesses and is not equally effective in all subject areas. In the problem solving approach, the teacher encourages the learner to analyze the problem, develop possible solutions, and test them out. The advocates of learning via problem solving argue that if one learns general techniques of solving problems, he will be able to apply these techniques to all problems he faces. This technique is probably most effective in situations where there are not specific answers to specific problems. The behaviorial sciences and especially education offer a rich supply of these kinds of problems.

Our experience working with interns in local schools indicates that interns want to be given solutions to their problems by the University or you people. Better yet, interns want or often demand that the University or you people solve their problems directly. You will be many miles from the University and us people, therefore, you will be directly responsible for solving your own problems. The discouraging part to all of this is that probably the majority of your problems will have nothing to do directly with classroom teaching, but

rather arise out of your interpersonal relations with each other, members of the off-campus community, cooperating teachers, students, administrators, and loved ones at home. Because of their indirect connection with the classroom, a terrible tendency exists to put off solving them or expecting someone else to solve these problems for you. If this tendency prevails, you are in trouble.

Many techniques, patterns, formulas, etc., have been suggested for solving problems. The best one, of course, is the one that works for you. Below is suggested one model of problem solving--use it if it helps, find another if it does not. The "scientific method" with which many of you are familiar is a system for solving problems and many problem solving techniques are based directly or indirectly on this "method."

This problem solving model has four parts or steps. They are:

1.) Observation (seeing)

2.) Analysis (thinking #1)

3.) Development of strategies (thinking #2)

4.) Trial (doing)

Observation

This is the sensory and emotional intake which you formally or informally evaluate that tells you there is a problem that needs solving.

Analysis

Thinking about what you see or feel to understand clearly what the problem is and why it exists. You determine why personal behaviors

or the behaviors of others cause a problem.

Development of alternative strategies

This is thinking about how you can change what you see and feel to remove the problem. This often involves finding ways of changing personal behaviors or the behaviors of others. Many strategies should be developed. The more alternatives you have the better your chances of finding one that is effective or orchestrating parts of a number of alternatives to develop an effective one in solving the problem. A number of sources of alternatives exist: the best is probably talking over your problem with your colleagues who are facing similar situations; others are: previous experience, current experience, previous learning, prayer, information from students, community resources, etc.

Trial

This involves choosing the best alternative from those you have developed and playing it out. This model is cyclicle; after you have implemented your best alternative, you observe the results of this action and formally or informally evaluate what you see or feel.

Then the process starts over. You analyze what you see and perhaps determine that the problem was solved. Or, perhaps look again at some of the alternatives and choose another to implement if the problem was not solved. Following this or a similar procedure will probably solve about 90% of the problems you will face. The other 10% are "punt" situations. In these cases "seek ye first" the on-site program coordinator and he or she will decide whether or not it should ultimately be referred to "us people."

Remember, problems are only problems until you face them. Then they vanish. The longer one worries about it and procrastinates the more serious the problem apparently becomes.